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WELD'S

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

ILLUSTRATED BY EXERCISES IN

COMPOSITION, ANALYZING AND PARSING.

BY ALLEN H. WELD, A. M.,
Author of Composition and Parsing Book, Latin Lessons and Reader.

THIRTEENTH EDITION.

PORTLAND:
SANBORN & CARTER.
1848.

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PREFACE.

THIS work was prepared with the hope of rendering the study of English Grammar more interesting and profitable than is usually the case under the ordinary methods of instruction.

Testimonials from the highest sources, received since the first edition was published, have led the author to believe that his efforts to this end have not been entirely in vain.

The work has been carefully revised, and a considerable part of it re-written, for the present edition. It has been enlarged by the addition of Introductory Lessons, Orthography, Prosody, and other matter necessary to make the work more complete as a Grammar of the language.

The subjects of Etymology and Syntax, are divided into three Parts. In the first, the Parts of Speech are defined, and their offices and relations explained. The noun is first illustrated in a familiar way, but still in a manner to relieve the teacher of the labor which properly belongs to the learner, by exercises on the black board or slate, and by supplying nouns in sentences which are left incomplete. These exercises are sufficiently extended to give a clear understanding of the Part of speech under examination.

The Verb is next explained by a similar method. The Noun and the Verb are now united to form a sentence.

The idea of *a sentence* is impressed upon the mind of the learner by a variety of exercises, questions and explanations. He is taught that the Noun and the Verb are the most important parts of speech, and that without employing both, no idea can be fully expressed in language.

The Parts of speech which extend or limit, or in any manner modify the meaning of the Noun, are next in their proper order clearly illustrated and defined, and in like manner, the modifications of the Verb are explained.

The sentence which was begun with two words, viz: the Noun and the Verb, is thus gradually extended, as nature dictates in learning language, and in a manner which can hardly fail of making the relation of words well understood by the learner.

After the sentence has been thus constructed, and the office and relation of each Part of speech explained, and after the terms by which its different parts are denominated, have been illustrated and defined, Exercises in Analysis are introduced, by which the learner is taught to resolve a sentence into the ele-

ments of which it is composed. Even young pupils will perform such exercises with surprising interest and facility, and will unconsciously gain, in a little time, more knowledge of the structure of Language, than he can acquire by a drilling of several years in the usual routine of *parsing*.

In Part II. the parts of speech are again taken up in the same order, and their variations and forms are explained, and exercises in PARSING are introduced, in addition to those in Analysis and Composition, which were commenced in Part I.

A few Rules of construction are employed in this Part, to guide in the exercise of parsing.

Part III. is devoted to Syntax and Composition; in this part, the rules and principles of construction established by usage, are illustrated by examples drawn from the best authorities, and arranged in exercises under the rules, respectively, for *analyzing* and *parsing*; and to these are subjoined other exercises for Composition, having reference to the same principles of construction. Special attention is given in this part to the use of *connectives*, and to the explanation of difficult *phrases* and combinations.

The Exercises in Composition throughout the book bring into immediate practice each principle explained; and besides their practical advantage, they are a useful means of mental discipline.

From the plan thus briefly explained, it will be perceived that the main design of this work is to exhibit a method of instruction which may relieve the monotony and *mechanical drudgery* usually attending the study of Grammar, not by *innovations* and *novelties*, but by a simple and natural course of exercises, which, if properly attended to, will not only ensure thorough progress in the knowledge of the subject, but will teach the method by which language may be studied with the greatest pleasure and advantage, and by which it can be employed with the most strength and propriety.

The space allotted for this preface does not admit of a particular enumeration of the works consulted and referred to. It may be sufficient to say that the work has been a long time in contemplation, and that the best authorities from Horne Tooke, Murray, Crombie, &c., down to the present time, have been consulted.

The acknowledgments of the author are due to Rev. Solomon Adams, of Boston, for many valuable hints and criticisms during the progress of the present edition through the press.

A. H. W.

FAMILIAR INSTRUCTION FOR YOUNG BEGINNERS.

THE following introductory pages are prefixed to the work, mainly for the purpose of suggesting to the teacher a familiar and intelligible method of explaining to the learner the formation of words and sentences; the terms employed in Grammar; and the classification of words into what is called the Parts of Speech.

Each lesson presents a subject for a familiar lecture, with a few illustrations which can be varied or extended at the discretion of the teacher.

LESSON I. (*Letters.*)

NOTE.—Let the class stand at the Blackboard, or be furnished with Slates while practising these lessons; or the teacher can do the writing on the Board for the class.

Write the marks or letters *a, e, i, o, u.* Sound or utter each separately.*

Write the letters *b, c, d, f, g, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v.* Endeavor to sound each by itself, not using *a, e,* or *u* before or after them. Try to sound *b* and *d* in the word *bird, c* in the word *cat, f* in *faith, g* in *go, k* in *kind, s* in *soil, j* in *judge, t* in *toil.*

Sound *a* in the words *bate, bat, bar, ball.*

Sound *e* in *mete, met.*

Sound *i* in *pine, pin.*

Sound *o* in *note, not, move.*

Sound *u* in *tube, tub, full.*

What is the difference between the letters *a, e, i, o, u,* and the letters *b, c, d, f, g,* and *h*?

Ans. The letters *a, e, i, o, u,* can be sounded easily alone, and are called *vocals* or *vowels.* The other letters are with difficulty sounded without the aid of the vowels, and are called *consonants.*

LESSON II. (*Words.*)

Put the letters *b, d, r, i,* together in such a way that they will call to mind something which you have seen. In like manner place the letters *h, s, r, e, o; d, g, o; w, i, d, n; r, n, i, a.*

---

*Let the class practise, simultaneously, on the different sounds of these letters, with a full and distinct utterance.

When letters are put together so as to mean something, they form *words* Before letters were invented certain pictures or signs were used in writing instead of words.

REMARK.—The whole number of words, consisting of about 40,000, is divided into *eight different* classes or sorts.

LESSON III. (*Classification of words.*) NOUNS, PRONOUNS.

One class of words consists of the *names* of things which we can see or think of.

Write the names of the objects which you can see or think of.

Does every object have a name? *Ans.* A large number of objects of the same kind have a *common* name. There is a great number of horses, and but one common name for all, viz: *horse.*

The name "*tree*" is given to a great number of objects.

Do any objects have a *particular* name which is applicable to no other object? *Ans.* Some objects are so important that we wish to speak of them separately, and for convenience, we give them a particular name; as, Washington, Boston, Amazon, James, Charles, &c.

Will you give particular names to some mountains? cities? rivers? towns? persons?

Do trees, birds, fish, stones, have particular names? Why not?

Words which denote the names of objects and things are called NOUNS.

Write the words *I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they, him, he, them, who, which.*

Are these words names of things? *Ans.* They are not names or nouns, but they stand in place of nouns and are called *pronouns.*

EXAMPLE.—I heard from my brother yesterday; *he* was well. The word *he* is used to avoid repeating *brother.*

LESSON IV. (*Classification of words.*) VERBS.

Write the words *sings, runs, neighs.*

Do these words denote the names of objects? What do they denote? *Ans.* They denote what something does. *What* sings? *What* runs? *What* neighs?

Write other words which will denote what *a man, a horse, a lion, a dog,* does.

How does the word *bird,* differ from the word *sings?* *Ans.* The first is the name of a certain animal, the last denotes what the bird does.

What is the difference between the words *fox* and *runs? horse* and *neighs? dog* and *barks? sun* and *shines? wind* and *blows?*

Words which denote what any thing does, has done, or will do, are called VERBS.

REMARK.—The two classes of words explained, viz: *the noun* and the *verb*, comprise a large part of all the words in the English language.

LESSON V. (*Classification of words.*) ADJECTIVES.

Write the words *good, great, wise, prudent.* Are these words nouns? Why not? Write each before the noun man. What do these words denote, when used before man? *Ans.* They denote *what kind* of a man, or the *quality* of a man.

Write words which will show what kind of a house you live in—what kind of a book you hold in your hand—what kind of a day it is.

These words which denote *what kind* or quality, are called ADJECTIVES.

NOTE.—The words *an* or *a* and *the* are generally called *articles*, but as they resemble in their office the words *one, this, that.* &c., they are sometimes classed with adjectives which limit or restrict the meaning of nouns, and are called Definitive adjectives.

What is the difference between the words *horse* and *gray*? *Ans.* The word *horse* is the name of an animal, the word *gray* denotes the kind, or quality of something.

What is the difference between the words *light* and *pleasant*? *boy* and *good*? *tree* and *high*? *house* and *large*?

Apply three adjectives to *man*; three to *child*; three to *day*; three to *night*; four to *horse.*

The adjective is a part of speech next in importance to the noun and verb. It comprises a large number of words which are used to express the qualities or to limit the meaning of nouns or pronouns.

LESSON VI. (*Classification of words.*) ADVERBS.

Write the words *pleasantly, sweetly, cheerfully.*

Can these words be joined to a noun? In the expression, *the sun shines*, to which word can *pleasantly* be joined to make sense? What kind of a word is *shines*?

"The bird sings *sweetly.*" Which word shows *how* the bird sings?

"The night was very dark." Which word shows *how* dark the night was? What kind of a word is dark? "He came yesterday." Which word denotes the time? With which word is *yesterday* connected?

Words which denote *manner, time, quantity,* &c., are called ADVERBS.

There are three other classes of words, termed PREPOSITIONS, see § 105; CONJUNCTIONS, see § 107; INTERJECTIONS, see § 41; which comprise but few words compared with the classes which have been explained above.

SUMMARY.

What is the number of words estimated to be in the English language?

Into what sorts or classes are these words divided, as explained in preceding lessons.

Name the Parts of Speech. *Ans.* THE NOUN, THE PRONOUN, THE ADJECTIVE, THE VERB, THE ADVERB, THE PREPOSITION, THE CONJUNCTION, and THE INTERJECTION.

LESSON VII. (*The sentence.*)

Write on the board or slate, in separate columns, the following *nouns* and *verbs*.

Nouns.	*Verbs.*
Wind.	Shine.
Snow.	Flies.
Stars.	Blows.

Place the nouns and the verbs together in such a way that they will make sense. How many things can be said with the six words above?

Words put together in such a manner as to express an idea, form a SENTENCE; as, *The wind blows, the stars shine.*

Write sentences, using the following words.

Water, ice, trees, sun, horse, grow, melts, freezes, shines, dogs, children, bark, play, walk, men, boys, ride, rolls, ball.

What parts of speech have you used in each sentence?

NOTE.—Every sentence contains at least one verb, and one noun, or something standing for a noun.

Write six sentences using such nouns and verbs as you can recollect.

LESSON VIII. (*Modifications.*)

Join some *adjectives* to each of the *nouns* in the following sentences to denote some quality; as, The oak falls — join an adjective to the noun *oak*, and the sentence will read, "the *sturdy* oak falls."

The — youth learns.	— children obey.
The — sun shines.	The — child weeps.
The — bird sings.	The — water flows.

Join an *adverb* to each of the verbs in the sentences above; as, The youth learns *readily;* readily is an adverb joined to the verb learns.

Point out the *adjectives, nouns, verbs* and *adverbs* in the following sentences.

Pine trees grow rapidly.	The angry waves dash violently.
The gentle wind blows softly.	The joyful tidings came to-day.
The little bird sings sweetly.	A wise man acts prudently.

LESSON IX. (*Formation of sentences.*)

Write in separate columns the following *adjectives, nouns, verbs* and *adverbs.*

Adjectives.	*Nouns.*	*Verbs.*	*Adverbs.*
pleasant,	cloud,	shines,	frowningly.
kind,	sun,	hangs,	brightly.
proud,	parents,	conducts,	carefully.
dark,	youth,	provide,	unbecomingly.

Place four of the words above together, so as to form a sentence; as, The dark cloud hangs frowningly.

LESSON X. (*Object.*)

Write on the board or slate, "The wind shakes the leaves."

Which noun denotes the thing that acts? *Ans.* Wind.

Which noun denotes the thing acted upon? *Ans.* Leaves.

Which word expresses the action of the wind upon the leaves? *Ans.* The verb *shakes.*

Write the following sentences, and point out the nouns which denote the actor, and the thing acted upon.

The sun melts the snow.	The boy strikes the bell.
The wind drives the ship.	The hawk seizes the dove.
The frost swells the ground.	The rose perfumes the air.

In what condition or relation is the noun sun, in the first sentence? *Ans.* In the condition or relation which denotes the thing that acts.

In what state or relation is the noun snow? *Ans.* In the state or relation which denotes the thing acted upon.

The condition or relation of a noun in a sentence is called its case.

The noun which denotes the doer or the thing spoken of, is in the *nominative case.*

The noun which denotes the thing acted upon is in the *objective case.**

Point out the nominative and objective cases in the sentences above. See § 54, § 55, § 57.

NOTE.—The cases of nouns need to be illustrated more fully than the limits of these first lessons will permit. But the teacher will be able by a little oral instruction to make the subject perfectly intelligible to young learners. In this connection may be explained the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb; and also the *number* and *gender* of nouns.

LESSON XI. (*Prepositions, &c.*)

Write, "Rain falls — the clouds."

Place some word *before* "the clouds" to make sense.

* The *subject* of a verb in the *passive form* is an exception to this remark.

They went — Boston — the cars.

Place a word before "Boston" and one before "the cars" to make sense.

The words which have been supplied are called PREPOSITIONS. For further explanation and exercises, see § 31.

Write, "James — Charles — Thomas are brothers."

"George reads — writes."

What words should be supplied, to connect James with Charles? Charles with Thomas? reads with writes?

He is happy *because* he is good.

What word connects *he is happy* with *he is good?*

The part of Speech used to connect sentences or words, is called a CONJUNCTION. See § 39.

INTERJECTIONS are exclamatory words; as, O! ah! alas! See § 41.

LESSON XII.

When the parts of speech and their offices are well understood, the learner can proceed to the exercise of forming sentences, gradually extending them by joining qualifying words to the principal parts, according to the following method.

SENTENCE. The wind drives.

Join an adjective.—The *tempestuous* wind drives.

Join an objective case.—The tempestuous wind drives *the ship.*

Join an adverb.—The tempestuous wind drives the ship *violently.*

Join a preposition and a noun following. { The tempestuous wind drives the ship violently *against the rocks.*

Extend the following sentences in a similar way.

The horse draws —	The scholar learns —
The sun warms —	Birds build —
The tree bears —	The tiger seizes —

Such exercises can be varied or extended at the pleasure of the teacher.

REMARK.—Exercises of this kind not only impart an interest to the study of Grammar, but also serve to facilitate the progress of the young learner, in acquiring a knowledge of the essential principles of language.

LESSONS FOR PARSING.

LESSON I.

Point out the nouns and verbs in the columns below.

Cæsar.	Dog.	King.	Cato.
Yesterday.	White.	Proper.	Wise.
Shines.	Barks.	Rules.	Sees.
Useful.	Runs.	Master.	Strives.

Point out the adjectives and the adverbs in the same columns.

LESSON II.

DIRECTION.—The noun which denotes that of which something is said, is in the *nominative* case.

The bird sings.	Time flies.
The dogs howl.	The moon is bright.
Men labor.	The stars twinkle.

LESSON III.

DIRECTION.—Some adjectives are joined to nouns, to qualify their meaning; as, A *good* man; *good* qualifies man.

Mention what the adjectives qualify in the following expressions.

Tall trees.	A mild disposition.	A fleet horse.
Pale moon.	A rapid current.	A ferocious tiger.
Lurid sky.	A florid countenance.	A stormy night.
The day is long.	The sky is blue.	Time is short.

LESSON IV.

DIRECTION.—A verb is used to assert something about that which its nominative denotes; as, The rain *falls*; the verb *falls* is used to assert something about rain.

Point out the nominative case, and the word which is used to assert something.

Charles reads.	The fire burns.
James studies.	The coachman drives.
The farmer ploughs.	The scholar learns.

LESSON V.

DIRECTION.—The noun which follows a *transitive** verb is in the

* The teacher can much more easily explain the idea of a *transitive* verb, by familiar *oral instruction*, than can be done in a book. See § 10, 4.

objective case; as, The miser loves *gold;* gold is in the objective case.

Point out the nouns in the objective case in the following sentences.

Charles reads his book.	The fire burns the wood.
James studies his lesson.	The coachman drives his team.
The farmer ploughs his ground.	The scholar gains knowledge.

LESSON VI.

DIRECTION.—Adverbs are joined to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, to modify their meaning.

NOTE.—Adverbs may be generally known by asking *how? when?* or *how much?* the word that answers is the adverb.

The bird flies, [*how?*] *Ans.* Swiftly; swiftly is the adverb; he is very ill; *How* ill? the adverb answers.

Point out the adverbs in the following sentences, and show to what words they are joined.

The boat arrived to day.	I esteemed him too highly.
The ship was launched yesterday.	He is very negligent.
I dislike his conduct exceedingly.	She sings sweetly.

LESSON VII.

DIRECTION.—A preposition connects the noun following it, in sense, to some word preceding it; as, He returned *from* Boston; from connects Boston with returned.

Mention what words the prepositions connect in the following sentences. For a list of prepositions see § 105.

He dwells in the city.	The soldiers were in the camp.
The ship has sailed for London.	The city was taken by the Americans.
He was buried beneath the river.	The hill slopes towards the East.
The boy stood on the burning deck.	The Mexicans were conquered in the battle.

LESSON VIII.

Point out the different parts of speech and show their relation.

The Americans conquered the Mexicans in the battle at Palo Alto.

The army under General Scott captured the fine city of Vera Cruz.

The robin sings sweetly in the Spring. The flower blooms in the meadow. The lambs skip over the hills. The Spring is the most delightful season of the year.

God created the earth; he covered it with verdure:
The sun shines at his command; he crowns the year with loving kindness;
His mercy is over all the works of his hand.

GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the science which teaches the principles, and the proper construction, of the English language.

§ 1. GENERAL DIVISIONS AND TERMS.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is generally divided into four parts,—*Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.

ORTHOGRAPHY, (Greek *orthos*, "correct," and *grapho* "to write,") treats of letters, and teaches their power and proper use.

ETYMOLOGY, (Greek *etumon*, "true and proper use," and *logos* "a word,") treats of words, and teaches their derivation, classes, and variations.

SYNTAX, (Greek *suntaxis*, "the act of arranging,") treats of sentences, and teaches the proper construction of words in forming them.

PROSODY, (Greek *prosodia*,) treats of accent, quantity and versification.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

The organs of Speech are so formed, as to be capable of uttering sounds, significant of ideas.

Language was spoken long before it was written. The first written language was in rude images, hieroglyphics, or pictures. Letters were a later invention.

§ 2. ALPHABET. (*Division of letters.*)

NOTE.—The word "Alphabet" is derived from *alpha, beta,* the names of the two first letters of the Greek Alphabet. The term has reference only to the arrangement of the letters; as, A. B. &c.

1. The English Alphabet consists of twenty six letters, which represent sounds, or articulations.

NOTE.—Articulation (*articulus*, a joint) consists in either wholly or partially intercepting the voice by closing or *joining* the organs of speech.

VOWELS.

2. Those letters which represent a free, uninterrupted sound, are called *vowels.* (Lat. *vocalis*, that may be sounded,) as *a, e, i, o, u*; and *w*, and *y* when not occurring at the beginning of a word or a syllable.

EXERCISES.

1. Sound *a* in *all* without articulating the *ll*; sound *a* in *at* without articulating the *t*; also, *a* in *ape* without articulating the *p*; also *a* in *arm* without articulating the *r*.

2. Sound the *a* in the following words; first pronouncing the word, then omitting the letters which follow the *a*, then sounding the *a* alone.

1—*a*	2—*a*	3—*a*	4—*a*.
bate — ba — a	bat — ba — a	bar — ba — a	ball — ba — a
fate — fa — a	fat — fa — a	far — fa — a	fall — fa — a
mate — ma — a	mat — ma — a	mar — ma — a	wall — wa — a

3. Treat the other vowels in a similar manner, in the following words.

1—*e*	2—*e*	1—*i*	2—*i*.
eke — e	elk — e	ice — i	in — i
mete — me — e	met — me — e	mice — mi — i	mill — mi — i
deep — dee — e	set — se — e	pine — pi — i	pin — pi — i

1—*o*	2—*o*	3—*o*	*promiscuous.*
old–o	off–o	move–mo–o	fate, fall, far, fat.
hope–ho–o	not–no–o	rove–pro–o	me, met.

1—*u*	2—*u*	3—*u*	mite, did.
tube–tu–u	tub–tu–u	full–fu–u	note, nor, move.
lute–lu–u	mug–mu–u	pull–pu–u	tune, tun, full.

CONSONANTS.

3. Letters which are used only in connection with vowels for the purpose of articulation, are called *consonants*. (Lat. *consonans*, "sounding together.")

4. *B*, *c*, (hard,) *g* (hard) *k*, *p*, *t*, are called *mutes*,—they represent no audible sound.

5. *C*, (soft,) *f*, *g* (soft,) *h*, *j*, *r*, *s*, *v*, *x*, *z*, are called *semivowels*, or *half vowels*,—they represent sounds obstructed by organs nearly closed.

6. *L*, *m*, *n*, *r*, are called liquids,—they easily coalesce with the sound of other letters with which they are associated.

EXERCISES.

1. Pronounce *ba*, *ka*, *pa*, *ta*, *ca*, *ga*.

2. Endeavor to sound b, k, p, t, c, g, without the *a*. What are these letters called? Why?

3. Pronounce *cf*, *ge*, *ja*, *re*, *se*, *ve*, *ex*, *ze*.

4. Sound f, g, h, j, r, s, v, x, z, without the *e*. Do these represent a full sound? What are they called? Why?

5. Pronounce the following words; and as far as possible sound the consonants alone.

1. *mutes.*	2. *semivowels.*	3. *liquids.*
bat — b — t	sauce — s — c	lamb — l — b
cap — c — p	verge — v — n — g	nor — n — r
sat — s — t	serve — s — r — v	long — l — *ng*
quake — q — k	horse — h — r — s	man — m — n

LABIALS, DENTALS, &c.

6. The consonants *b*, *p*, *m*, *w*, *v*, are called labials, (Lat. *labia*, "a lip,") because the lips are employed in articulating them.

7. The consonants *d*, *t*, *c* (soft,) *g* (soft,) *j*, and *s*, *z* (*sibilant* or *hissing*,) are called dentals, (Lat. *dens*, "a tooth,")—they are articulated by pressing the tongue upon the *teeth*.

8. The consonants *k*, *c* (hard,) *g* (hard,) *y* (at the beginning of a syllable,) are called *palatals*—they are articulated by pressing the tongue against the *palate*.

9. *W* and *y* are consonants when they begin a word or a syllable.

§ 3. SOUNDS OF THE VOWELS.

NOTE.—The following analysis of the sounds of the vowels and consonants is taken by permission from a pamphlet by E. M. Thurston, A. M., just published. A chart ingeniously exhibiting the same analysis, and recently prepared by Mr. T. is commended to those who wish to see a concise and philosophical representation of the elements and sounds of the English Language.

A

The vowel *a* has four sounds peculiar to itself; as,

1. *a* in *fate*, 2. *a* in *fat*, 3. *a* in *far*, 4. *a* in *fall*.

It is also used to represent the sound of *e* in many, and *o* in what.

E

The vowel *e* has two sounds peculiar to itself; as,

1. *e* in *mete*, 2. *e* in *met*.

It is also used to represent the second sound of *a* in *there*; the second sound of *i* in *England*, and the second sound of *u* in *her*.

I

The vowel *i* has two sounds peculiar to itself; as,

1. *i* in *pine*, 2. *i* in *pin*.

It is used also to represent the first sound of *e* in machine, and the second sound of *u* in bird.

O

The vowel *o* has three sounds peculiar to itself; as,

1. *o* in *note*, 2. *o* in *not*, 3. *o* in *move*.

It is also used to represent the second sound of *u* in *dove*, and the sound of *w* united with *u* in *one*.

U

The vowel *u* has three sounds peculiar to itself; as,

1. *u* in *tube*, 2. *u* in *tub*, 3. *u* in *full*.

It is used also to represent the second sound of *e* in *bury*; the second sound of *i* in *busy*; the sound of *w* in *quoit*, and the sound of *yu* in *union*.

EXERCISE.

Give the vowel sounds in the following words.

Ale, arm, law, cat, bat, lard, hard, ball, fall, what, wasp, wash.
Eel, me, elk, term, mild, mint, marine, brute, but, pull.

§ 4. SOUNDS OF THE CONSONANTS.

The following consonants have but one sound.

1. *b* as in *bite*, *k* as in *kite*, *p* as in *pail*, *l* as in *late*, *r* as in *rate*, *v* as in *vain*, *sh* as in *shall*, *zh* like *s* in *pleasure*, *ng* as in *thing*, *th* sharp as in *thin*, *th* flat as in *thou*, *j* as in *joy*, *m* as in *man*.

The consonant *h* is an aspirate, and has one sound as in *hand*.

2. Each of the following consonants has one sound peculiar to itself, and is used to represent one or more of the sounds of other consonants as follows:

d as in *d*ate,	and	represents	*j* as in sol*d*ier.
f as in *f*an,	"	"	*v* as in o*f*.
g as in *g*ave,	"	"	*j* as in *g*em.
n as in *n*ote,	"	"	*ng* as in si*ng*ular.
s as in *s*in,	"	"	*z* as in hi*s*, *sh* as in *s*ugar, and *zh* as in plea*s*ure.
t as in *t*ime,	"	"	*sh* as in nati*o*n, and *ch* as in na*t*ure.
w as in *w*ave,	"	"	*u* as in br*o*wn.
y as in *y*et,	"	"	*i* as in t*y*rant.
z as in *z*one,	"	"	*zh* as in a*z*ure.
ch as in *ch*urch,	"	"	*sh* as in mac*h*ine, *k* as in *ch*orus, and *kw* as in *ch*oir.

C and *G* are hard before *a, o, u, r, l*, and soft before *e, i*, and *y*.

§ 5. SUBSTITUTES, OR EQUIVALENTS.

CONSONANT SUBSTITUTES.

SUBSTITUTES are characters which have no sound peculiar to themselves, but are used to represent the sound of other letters.

EXAMPLES.

The character *c* represents *k* before *a, o, u, l, r*; and the sound of *s* before *e i*, and *y*; the sound of *z* in sacrifice, and the sound of *sh* as in oc*e*an.

Q	represents	the sound of	*k* as in li*q*uid.
X	"	"	*gz* as in e*x*act, and *z* as in *x*anthus.
Ph	"	"	*f* as in *ph*legm, and *v* as in Ste*ph*en.
Gh	"	"	*f* as in cou*gh*, and *k* as in hou*gh*.

VOWEL SUBSTITUTES.*

A a	represents	*a* as in B*aa*lam.
A e	"	long *e* as in C*æ*sar, and short *e* as in di*æ*resis.
A i	"	*a* as in pl*ai*d, *e* as in ag*ai*n, *i* long, as in *ai*sle, *i* short, as in vill*ai*n, and *u* short, as in Brit*ai*n.

Ao represents the first sound of *a* as in g*ao*l, and the second sound of *o* as in extr*ao*rdinary.

Au represents the second sound of *a* as in dr*au*ght, and the first sound of *a* as in g*au*ge, the third sound of *a* as in *au*nt, the fourth sound of *a* as in c*au*ght, the first sound of *o* as in h*au*tboy, and the second sound of *o*, (or the fourth sound of *a*) as in l*au*rel.

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*The compounds here termed *substitutes* are usually called *diphthongs* or *digraphs*, when composed of two vowels; *triphthongs*, when composed of three vowels.

Aw represents *a* as in l*aw*. *Ay* represents the first sound of *a* as in d*ay*, and the second sound of *e* as in s*ays*.

Ea represents the first sound of *a* as in st*eak*, the third sound of *a* as in h*eart*, the first sound of *e* as in t*ea*, the second sound of *e* as in h*ea*d, and the second sound of *u* as in veng*ea*nce.

Ee represents the first sound of *e* as in tr*ee*, and the second sound of *i* as in b*ee*n.

Ei represents the first sound of *a* as in v*ei*l, the second sound of *a* as in th*ei*r, the first sound of *e* as in dec*ei*t, the second sound of *e* as in h*ei*fer, the first sound of *i* as in h*ei*ght, and the second sound of *i* as in forf*ei*t.

Eo represents the first sound of *e* as in p*eo*ple, the second sound of *e* as in l*eo*pard, the first sound of *o* as in y*eo*man, the second sound of *o* as in G*eo*rge, and the second sound of *u* as in dung*eo*n.

Eu represents the first sound of *u* as in d*eu*ce, and the third sound of *u* as in rh*eu*m.

Ew represents the first sound of *o* as in s*ew*, and the first sound of *u* as in d*ew*.

Ey represents the first sound of *a* as in pr*ey*, and the first sound of *e* as in k*ey*.

Ia represents the second sound of *a* as in part*ia*l, and the second sound of *i* as in marr*ia*ge.

Ie represents the first sound of *e* as in gr*ie*f, the second sound of *e* as in quo*ie*nt, the first sound of *i* as in d*ie*, and the second sound of *i* as in s*ie*ve.

Ii represents the first sound of *i* as in Pomp*ii*.

Io represents the first sound of *u* as in nat*io*n.

Iu represents the second sound of *u* as in L*iu*cius.

Oa represents the fourth sound of *a* as in br*oa*d, and the first sound of *o* as in b*oa*t.

Oe represents the first sound of *e* as in ant*oe*ci, the second sound of *e* as in f*oe*tid, the first sound of *o* as in d*oe*, and the third sound of *o* as in sh*oe*.

Oi represents the first sound of *i* as in ch*oi*r, and the second sound of *i* as in tort*oi*se.

Oo represents the first sound of *o* as in d*oo*r, the third sound of *o* as in f*oo*l, the second sound of *u* as in fl*oo*d, and the third sound of *u* as in g*oo*d.

Ou represents the fourth sound of *a* as in *ou*ght, the first sound of *o* as in th*ou*gh, the second sound of *o* as in c*ou*gh, and the third sound of *o* as in s*ou*p, the second sound of *u* as in r*ou*gh, and the third sound of *u* as in c*ou*ld.

Ow represents the first sound of *o* as in kn*ow*.

Ua represents the second sound of *a* as in g*ua*rantee, the third sound of *a* as in g*ua*rd, and the first sound of *u* as in mant*ua*maker.

Ue represents the second sound of *e* as in g*ue*st, the third sound of *u* as in tr*ue*, the first sound of *u* as in bl*ue*, and the second sound of *u* as in conq*ue*r.

Ui represents the first sound of *i* as in g*ui*de, the second sound of *i* as in g*ui*lt, the third sound of *u* as in fr*ui*t, and the first sound of *u* as in j*ui*ce.

Uo represents the second sound of *u* as in liq*uor*.
Uy represents the first sound of *i* as in b*uy*.
Awe represents the fourth sound of *a* as in *awe*.
Aye represents the first sound of *a* as in *aye*.
Eau represents the first sound of *o* as in b*eau*, and the first sound of *u* as in b*eauty*.
Eou represents the second sound of *u* as in herbac*eous*.
Eye represents the first sound of *i* as in *eye*.
Ieu represents the first sound of *u* as in ad*ieu*.
Iou represents the second sound of *u* as in grac*ious*.
Iew represents the first sound of *u* as in v*iew*.
Oeu represents the third sound of *u* as in man*oeuver*.
Owe represents the first sound of *o* as in *owe*.

DIPHTHONGS.

A diphthong is a union of two vowel sounds in the same syllable. There are three diphthongs in the language, viz: *ay*, the adverb of affirmation, *oi* or *oy*, and *ou* or *ow*.

In the first, *a* has its third sound, and *y* represents the first sound of *e*. In the second *o* has its second sound, and *i* or *y* the first sound of *e*, as heard in the words *toil*, *joy* In the third, *o* has its second sound, and *u* or *w* has the third sound of *u*, as heard in *bound*, *town*.

NOTE.—The *i* and the *y* in the diphthongs, represent the first sound of *e* somewhat clipped, still it is the element of *e* as heard in me.

§ 6. WORDS.

1. A *word* consists of two or more letters, and is usually the sign of an idea.

2. A *syllable* is a word, or such a part of a word as is uttered by one articulation.

3. A word of one syllable is termed a *monosyllable*; of two syllables, a *dissyllable*; of three syllables, a *trisyllable*; of more than three syllables, a *polysyllable*.

Rules for *Spelling* may be found in the Appendix.

Directions for the use of Capital Letters.

It was formerly the custom to begin every noun with a capital; but as this practice was troublesome, and gave the writing or printing a crowded and confused appearance, it has been discontinued. It is, however, very proper to begin with a capital, in the following instances, viz:

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period; and if the two sentences are *independent*, after a note of interrogation or exclamation.

3. The appellations of the Deity.

EXAMPLES.

"God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, the Lord, Providence, the Messiah, the Holy Spirit."

4. Proper names of persons, places, streets, mountains, rivers, ships, and common nouns personified.

EXAMPLES.

"George, York, the Strand, the Alps, the Thames, the Sea-horse."

5. All titles of honor, professions, or callings, also the names of religious sects, courts, societies, and public bodies of men.

EXAMPLES.

"Governor, Judge, Esquire, Baptists, Friends, Congress, the Supreme Judicial Court."

6. Names of months, and the days of the week.

7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, "Grecian, Roman, English, French and Italian."

8. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon, or when it is in a direct form.

EXAMPLES.

"Always remember this ancient maxim: 'Know thyself.'" "Our great Lawgiver says, 'Take up thy cross daily, and follow me.'"

But when a quotation is brought in indirectly after a comma, a capital is unnecessary: as, "Solomon observes, 'that pride goes before destruction.'"

The first word of an example may also very properly begin with a capital; as, "Temptation proves our virtue."

9. Every noun and principal word in the titles of books.

EXAMPLES.

"Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language;" "Thomson's Seasons;" "Rollin's Ancient History."

10. The first word of every line in poetry.

11. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals; as, "I write;" "Hear, O earth!"

12. Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND EXERCISES.

PART I.

This part embraces the essential principles of Grammar, which will be more fully detailed in the subsequent parts of the work. Additional examples and exercises can be easily supplied in such parts as may need further illustration, than is afforded in the book.

§ 7. PARTS OF SPEECH.

Words are divided into eight sorts or kinds, called PARTS OF SPEECH. See Familiar Lessons, III, IV, V, VI.

THEIR NAMES.

1. The NOUN.	4. The VERB.†
2. " PRONOUN.	5. " ADVERB.
3. " ADJECTIVE.*	6. " PREPOSITION.

7. The CONJUNCTION.
8. " INTERJECTION.

1. The principal parts of Speech are the NOUN and the VERB.

2. No idea can be fully expressed in language, without using a noun or a pronoun, and a verb.

* The *Article* is classed under the Adjective.
† The *Participle* is considered a part of the verb.

EXERCISE.*

Express an idea about wind, in *two words*—also, about

fire†	water	wood	ice
boy	time	tree	bird.

What parts of speech have been employed?

The learner can now express an idea, (using the *noun* and the *verb*,) about such objects as can readily be called to mind.

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§ 8. THE NOUN.

NOTE.—The meaning of the word noun, is A NAME—(Latin *nomen*.)

1. Every *name* is a noun.

Mention the names of the objects in this room.

2. The name of every person, object, or thing, which can be thought of, or spoken of, is a noun. ‡

Mention all the nouns or names, you can recollect.

EXERCISE.

For the Board or Slate.

1. Write the *names* of the objects in a school room.
2. Write the *names* of animals in a farm yard.
3. Write the *names* of flowers in a garden.
4. Write the *names* of trees in the forest.
5. Write the *names* of certain habits; as, *Sloth, diligence, &c.*
6. Write the *names* of certain vices; as, *Profaneness, lying, &c.*
7. Write the *names* of certain virtues; as, *Benevolence, generosity, &c.*

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* Exercises of this kind may be performed with pleasure and profit to the learner upon a BLACK-BOARD or SLATE. Oral exercises may be added in cases where the learner does not comprehend the subject perfectly.

† *A* or *the*, may be placed before each of these words; as, 'The fire,' etc.

‡ The words *thing* and *object* are used in this book in the widest sense. The word *thing* is applied indiscriminately, to inanimate objects, and to abstract qualities. The word *object* is applied to *persons*, and to every thing which is presented to the *senses*. The learner should be careful not to confound this general meaning of *object*, with its specific signification as a *grammatical term*, opposed to *subject*

8. Write the *names* of the five senses; as, *Hearing, &c.*
9 Write the *names* of the metals; as, *Gold, &c.*
10. Write the *names* of the persons and places which you can recollect.

What part of speech has been used to denote the objects and things whose names have been written? Why?

3. When a noun denotes but one person or thing, it is in the SINGULAR NUMBER;* as, Pen, book, letter.

4. When a noun denotes more than one person or thing, it is in the PLURAL NUMBER; as, Pens, books, letters.

5. The names of individual persons, places and things, are called PROPER nouns; as, Charles, Boston, April.

6. Other names are called COMMON nouns.

EXERCISE.

(*a*) Point out the nouns in the following examples.

The moon rises in the east.
The fire burns on the hearth.
Time is money, said Franklin.
Snow and rain fall from the clouds.
The Amazon is the largest river in the world.
Washington was a native of Virginia.
The sun, stars and planets.
The sleep of the sluggard.
Real friendship is enduring.
Honor is the reward of valor.
Justice, truth, and prudence.

Which are common nouns? Proper?

For the Black-board.

DIRECTION.—Every sentence after a period should begin with a capital letter.

(*b*) Place a noun *before* each of the following expressions.

Model.

— is hard.	— is steep.
The flint is *hard.*	The hill is *steep.*

— is pleasant.	— is kind.	— is dark.	— runs.
— walks.	— reads.	— writes.	— mows.
— is high.	— is long.	— studies.	— shines.

* A few terms, such as *number, case, nominative, objective, &c.*, are introduced into this part to give variety to the exercises, and a general knowledge of their use. They are fully explained in Part II.

(c) Connect two nouns with each of the following words to make sense.

Model.

— loves — .

The *sluggard* loves *sleep*.

— loves —	— hates —	— pleases —	— chooses —
— strikes —	— burns —	— warms —	— freezes —
— writes —	— studies —	— deceives —	— obeys —

§ 9. DEFINITION.

1. A noun is the *name* by which any person or thing is called.

Why is the word *lion* a noun? *Ans.* Because it is the name by which a certain animal is called.

Why is the word animal a noun? *Ans.* It is the name by which living beings are called.

Why are the words *Charles, George, Susan* and *Helen*, nouns? Why are the words *rose, lily, pink*, nouns? Why is the word *man* a noun? *Ans.* It is the general *name* or *term* by which the human species is called.

Why are the words *virtue, vice, idleness, industry, temperance, beauty*, and *deformity*, nouns? *Ans.* They are *names* or *terms* by which certain qualities are called.

2. The names, then, of all persons, places, qualities and substances, are nouns.

3. Nouns are sometimes called substantives.

REVIEW.

1. What are the parts of speech? 2. What are the principal parts of speech? 3. What parts of speech must always be used in speaking or writing, to express an idea fully? 4. What is the meaning of the word *noun*? 5. Repeat the definition of the noun. 6. Write on the board or slate, several examples of nouns. 7. What names are called proper nouns? Common? 8. Are the words *good, great, tall, high*, nouns? Why not? 9. What kind of nouns are the words Charles, James, Boston, Portland? Why? 10. What kind of nouns are the words *earth, sun, virtue, vice, house, road*? 11. Are the words *loves, walks, pleases, hates, shines*, nouns? Why not?

§ 10. THE VERB.

Verb (Latin *verbum*, a word) means *a word.*

1. No assertion can be made about any person or thing, without a verb.

2. The noun and the verb are the principal words in a sentence.

EXERCISE.

For the Board or Slate.

(*a*) Place a word after each of the following nouns to make an assertion.

Model.

The wind —	The horse —
The wind *blows* —	The horse *neighs.*

The waves —	The sun —	The dog —	The rain
The day —	Birds —	The lion —	The ships —
Fire —	Flowers —	Trees —	Stars —

(*b*) Point out the verbs in the following expressions.

The moon rises.	The sun sets.
The child reads his book.	The sword kills.
The loud thunder peals.	The waves dash violently

What part of speech has been employed after the *nouns* sun, stars, &c.? Why are the words sun, stars, fire, &c., called nouns?

In the expressions above, what is said or asserted of the moon? Of the sun? Of the fire? Of the child? What part of speech is used to make the assertion?

3. Most verbs are used to *assert* the action of some person or thing.

EXAMPLES.

The horse runs. Which word is used to assert the action of the horse, or to express what the horse does?

The bird flies. Which word is used to assert the action of the bird?

The worm creeps. Which is the verb? Why?

The wolf howls. Which word denotes the thing that acts, or the actor?

The bee hums. Which word denotes the actor? Which is used to assert the action?

EXERCISE.

Use a word after the following nouns to express some action.

Example or Model.

The bird —	The rose —	The stars —
The bird *sings.*	The rose *blooms.*	The stars *twinkle.*
The cow —	The tiger —	The swallow —
The lightning —	The hail —	Thunder —
Glass —	Smoke —	Wood —
The sea —	The eel —	The bear —

What part of speech has been employed to express action?

4. Many verbs assert the action of one person or thing upon another.

EXAMPLES.

The sun warms the earth.

Which word is used to assert the action of the *sun* upon the *earth*?

The wind drives the snow.

Which word denotes the doer? Which denotes the thing acted upon? Which word is used to assert the action of the *wind* upon the *snow*?

EXERCISE.

For the Board or Slate.

(*a*) Supply two verbs between the nouns in the same line to assert the action of one person or thing upon another.

Model.

Jane — flowers.

Jane *plucks* flowers. Jane *cultivates* flowers.

George —	his brother.	Trees —	fruit.	Children —	books.
Water —	thirst.	Food —	hunger.	Eyes —	light.
Teeth —	food.	Earth —	fruit.	Fire —	wood.

Model.

(*b*) Use a noun to denote the doer, and a verb to assert the action, before the following nouns:

— light	— light
The sun gives light.	*Clouds obscure the* light.

— trees.	— children.	— flour.	— carriage.
— grain.	— book.	— time.	— money.

5. Verbs which are used to assert the action of one person, object, or thing upon another, are called *transitive verbs.*

The heat melts the wax. Why is *melts* a *transitive* verb? *Ans.* It asserts what heat does to wax, or the action of *heat* upon wax.

The sun warms the earth. Why is *warms* a *transitive* verb?

The fire consumes the wood. What kind of a verb is *consumes?* Why?

§ 11. THE OBJECT.

1. The *object* of a transitive verb is a noun or a pronoun which denotes the person or thing that the agent or doer acts upon or controls.

EXAMPLES.

Zeno chastised his slave. The noun *slave* denotes the person acted upon, and is therefore, the object of the verb.

God created the earth. Which word denotes the object?

The wind drives the ship. Which word denotes the thing acted upon? What then is the object?

The king rules his people. Point out the *object* of the verb.

The gentleman has a watch. What is the *object* of the verb has?

2. The noun which is the *object* of the verb, is said to be in the *objective case.*

§ 12. DEFINITION.

1. A VERB is the part of speech by which any thing is asserted.

2. Any verb which admits of an object is a *transitive* verb.

3. Any verb which does not admit of an object is an *intransitive* verb.

EXERCISE.

(*a*) Point out the *verb* and *object*, in each of the following sentences.

The swallow builds her nest. The husbandman tills the ground.
Bees produce honey. The tree yields fruit.

(*b*) Express the name of an object after each of the following verbs.

Sickness causes — The earth produces —
Worms destroy — God created —

Are the above verbs transitive or instransitive? Why? Are the verbs *stands, walks, runs, shines*, transitive or intransitive? Why?

(*c*) Point out the nouns and verbs in the following sentences; also, the object of each transitive verb.

A thief stole cloth from a draper.
Birds build their nests in a secure place.
Camels bear heavy burdens on their backs.
The general gained the victory.
The enemy desolated the country.
The scholar studies his lesson.
Perseverance overcomes difficulties.

REVIEW.

1. What is the meaning of *verb*? 2. Define the object of a verb. 3. Define the verb. 4. What parts of speech must be used to express an idea, or to make sense? 5. How does a *transitive* differ from an *intransitive* verb? 6. What kind of verbs takes an object?

§ 13. THE SENTENCE.

1. A sentence consists of such words as are employed to declare or assert any thing; as, The scholar studies; the plant grows.

2. Every sentence includes, at least, a noun and a verb.

3. Every sentence contains a *subject* and a *predicate*.

§ 14. THE SUBJECT.*

The *subject* of a sentence denotes that of which something is asserted.

EXAMPLES.

The earth trembled, is a sentence. The subject is the noun *earth*; it denotes the thing of which something is asserted.

The flowers bloom. What is the subject? Why?

EXERCISE.

(*a*) Point out the subjects of the following sentences.

The tree rocks.	The worm creeps.
The day dawns.	The leaf shakes.
The sword glitters.	The snow melts.
The branches bend.	The sun sets.

(*b*) Supply three subjects for each of the following verbs.

Model.

— flies.

The *bird* flies.	*Time* flies.	*The enemy* flies.	
— stands.	— sleeps.	— awakes.	— rises.
— falls.	— sits.	— walks.	— dreams.
— commands.	— burns.	— reads.	— shake.

(*c*) Point out the nouns which denote the subjects and objects, in the following sentences.

The king conquered the enemy.	The tree yields fruit.
The soldiers besieged the town.	The moon withdraws her light.
The foxes deceived the hunters.	Bees collect honey.
The wolf followed the lamb.	Hunters pursue the game.

4. The noun which is the subject of the verb is in the *nominative case.*

In the sentences above, *king*, *soldiers*, *foxes*, and *wolf*, are in the nominative case. What others are in the nominative?

* The *subject* is here defined as a *grammatical* term. In *logic*, the subject of thought is always some person or thing. A similar distinction is made between the terms *object* and *predicate* in grammar, and the same terms in logic.

5. To find the word which is in the nominative case, inquire what word denotes that of which something is asserted.

EXERCISE.

Point out the nouns in the nominative case in the following sentences.

The child plays.	The trees grow.
The leaf shakes.	The fox barks.
The horse neighs.	The ball rolls.
Time flies.	Idleness produces poverty.
The sun sets in a cloud.	The master taught him to write.
The sky is clear.	Contentment is a blessing.
The apples are ripe.	Union is strength.

§ 15. THE PREDICATE.

NOTE.—To predicate, signifies *to affirm, to assert, to declare.*

The predicate of a sentence consists of the word or words, which we use in asserting any thing.

EXAMPLES.

The sun shines; shines is the *predicate;* it is used to assert something about the sun.

The grass grows. Point out the *predicate.* Why is it called predicate?
The ship sails. Point out the *predicate.*
The day *is pleasant.* What is asserted of day?

EXERCISE.

Supply two predicates for each of the following nouns.

Model.

Trees —	Roses —
Trees *blossom.*	Roses are *fragrant.*

Earth — Water — Dog — Clouds — Snow — Horse —
Serpent — Vapor — Fire — Man — Boy — Rain —

What part of speech has been used in asserting something of the subjects above? What parts of speech have been defined?

§ 16. *The Verb Be.*

1. *Am, are, was, is,* are parts of the verb *be.*

2. The verb *be* asserts only the *existence* of the subject; as, I *am;* i. e., I exist. The world *is;* i. e., exists.

3. Some word or words must be used with the verb *be,* to predicate or assert any thing more than existence; as, The sun is shining; *is shining* is the predicate. The earth is round; "*is,*" with the word "*round,*" constitutes the predicate. The man is in trouble; *is in trouble,* is the predicate.

NOTE.—In these examples, existence is first asserted, and then something more is added. The man *is;* i. e. is existing or living; *in trouble* is added to show the state in which he is living.

EXERCISE.

(*a*) Point out the predicate in the following expressions.

Time is short.	The trees are tall.
The rain is falling.	The day is near.
The sun is pleasant.	The view was delightful.
The soil is productive.	The time is at hand.

Supply a word to complete the predicate in each of the following expressions.

Friends were —	Time is —
The scholars are —	Home is —
The man is —	The horses are —
The birds are —	The snow was —
I am —	Thou art —

§ 17. *The Verbs May, Can, Shall, Will, Might, Must, Could, Would, Should.*

These verbs are used with other verbs, or as parts of other verbs, to make an assertion or predicate.

COMPOSITION.

Compose three sentences on each subject, including the verbs last mentioned.

Model.

The youth —	The work —
The youth *will return.*	The work *must be pleasant.*
The youth *may study.*	The work *should progress.*
The youth *should obey.*	The work *will be completed.*

Subjects.

Children —	Charles —	Parents —	The sabbath —
Time —	The Bible —	Talents —	Anger —

§ 18. DEFINITIONS.

1. A sentence is any collection of words which comprises a subject and a predicate.

2. The principal parts of a sentence are the *subject* and *predicate.*

3. The subject denotes that of which something is asserted or expressed.

4. The predicate is used to express that which is asserted of the subject.

5. The subject must be a noun, or something standing for a noun.

6. The predicate may be any verb, or the verb BE with some word or words connected with it.

COMPOSITION.

DIRECTION.—Write the composition in a plain neat hand, leaving a wide margin on the left side of the page. Make a period at the close of every complete sentence.

Compose six sentences on each of the following *subjects.*

Model.

Subject — sun —

The sun shines.	The sun gives light.
The sun warms the earth.	The sun melts the snow.
The sun dries the ground.	The sun is eclipsed by the moon.

A man. A bird. A boy. A child.

REVIEW.

1. What parts of speech are essential in forming a sentence? 2. What are the principal parts of a sentence called? 3. Define the subject. 4. Of what part or parts of speech must the subject consist? 5. Of what may the predicate consist? 6. How does the verb BE differ from other verbs? 7. What is said of the verbs *may, can, &c.* 8. Will you give an example of a sentence? 9. In the sentence, *The clouds fly,* which word is the subject? Which word is the predicate? 10. Point out the subjects and predicates in the following sentences. *The sky is clear. The leaves shake. The ship is sailing.*

EXERCISE.

The learner may now point out the *subject* and *predicate* in each of the following sentences.

NOTE.—The predicate may be known by asking what is said of asserted of the subject; the word or words which answer the question will be the predicate.

Authors write books.	Soldiers fight battles.
Ships sail on the sea.	Foxes dig holes in the ground.
Indians use the tomahawk.	Life is a vapor.

Point out the nouns and verbs in the sentences above.

Point out the nouns which are in the nominative case; in the objective case.

The objective case may be found by inquiring *what is* the object of the action.

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§ 19. THE PRONOUN.

The word pronoun [Latin *pro,* instead of, and *nomen,* a name], signifies in stead of a noun or name.

1. A pronoun is employed to avoid an improper or too frequent use of the noun; as, I will write; the pronoun *I* is *properly* used instead of the name of the writer. James might

learn if *he* would be diligent; *he* is used to avoid repeating James.

2. The following words are called *personal* pronouns.

SUBJECTS. *In the nominative case*	OBJECTS. *In the objective case.*
I	me
Thou	thee
He	him
She	her
It	it
We	us
Ye *or* you	you
They	them.

3. The following words are called *relative* pronouns.

SUBJECTS. *Nominative.*	OBJECTS. *Objective.*
Who	whom
Which	which
That	that.

4. *Who* and *whom* are used only for persons, and for things personified.

5. *Which* is used for things and irrational animals.*

6. *That* is used for persons, for irrational animals, and for things.

EXERCISE.

(*a*) Write some pronoun *before* each of the following verbs.

Model.

—work.	—believe.	—knowest.
I work.	*We* believe.	*Thou* knowest.

—walk.	—dreams.	—studies.	—work.	—love.
—read.	—walkest.	—lovest.	—dream.	—works.

* In older English writers, and in the Bible, *which* often refers to persons.

(*b*) Write some pronoun to denote the *object* of the following verbs.

Model.

They obey —
They obey the king.

We should fear —
We should fear God.

I teach —	I believe —	I know —
He blames —	I will convince —	I will chastise —
I hear —	They rebuke —	I read —

NOTE.—The objects *whom* and *which* are placed before the verb; as, Whom I love, whom I fear, which I see.

(*c*) Supply subjects and objects for the following verbs.

Model.

— teach —

I teach you, you teach me, we teach them, they teach us, whom I teach, etc.

— praise —	— robs —	— blames —
— advisest —	— chastises —	— please —
— see —	— reprove —	— slanders —

REMARKS.

In the following examples the learner may point out the pronouns which are subjects or objects, and those which are in the nominative case or in the objective case.

It should be remembered that the objects *whom*, *which* and *that* stand *before* the subject; as, The book *which I* read; *which* is the *object* of read, and is placed before I, the subject. The learner will also bear in mind that the pronoun which is the *subject*, is in the *nominative case*; and that the pronoun which is the *object* of a verb or preposition, is in the *objective* case.

EXAMPLES.

He is the man whom I saw.
Who do men say that I am?
Did you hear the news which they brought?
He blamed me, and I blame you.
The rose which we saw is fading.
The tree that we passed has withered.
The orator whom I heard was eloquent.
I am the vine, ye are the branches.
The task which I performed was difficult.

§ 20. DEFINITION.

1. A PRONOUN is a part of speech used instead of a noun.

REVIEW.

1 What does the word pronoun signify? 2. What pronouns are subjects? 3. What pronouns are objects? 4. Define a pronoun. 5. Which are the personal pronouns? 6. Which the relatives? 7. What is the proper position of whom in a sentence? Of *which* and *that*, when they are the object of a verb? 8. Name the personal pronouns. 9 The relative pronouns.

COMPOSITION.

Compose sentences which shall include in each, one or more of the following pronouns.

Subjects.	*Objects.*
I	me
He	him
Who	whom
She	her
They	them
Which	which
That	that.

§ 21. NOUNS OR PRONOUNS MODIFIED.

1. Some word or words may be joined to nouns or pronouns to modify their meaning.

NOTE.—As the word *modify* is often used in this book, it is important that the learner should have a clear idea of its signification. *To modify*, (Lat. *modus*, "manner," "limit," "bound,") signifies to qualify, to describe, to define, to limit, to explain.

EXAMPLES.

Good man. *Man* is modified by *good*; i. e., *good* expresses the character of *man*.

Pleasant light. *Light* is modified by *pleasant*; i. e., *pleasant* expresses the quality of *light*, or shows what *kind* of light.

EXERCISE.

Show how the nouns are modified in the following examples.

Revengeful temper.	Fruitful trees.	Selfish heart.
Strong memory.	Productive soil.	Cheerful light.
Dark night.	Long day.	Deep water.

NOTE.—The words joined to the nouns above are called adjectives.

2. The meaning of nouns and pronouns may be modified by other nouns.

EXAMPLES.

Cicero, *the orator;* the orator modifies Cicero; i. e., it denotes *what* Cicero is referred to.

Cicero's orations; *Cicero's* modifies orations. *Whose* or *what* orations? The noun *Cicero's*, answers the inquiry, and therefore restricts the word *orations* to a particular class.

John, the Baptist. How is the meaning of *John* modified?

Pilgrim's progress How is the meaning of *progress* modified?

Mention other examples of a similar kind.

3. The meaning of nouns and pronouns may be modified by the prepositions *in, of, on, with; at,* and the noun or word following them.

EXAMPLES.

A man of sorrow; A man in affliction; *of sorrow, in affliction,* modify man; i. e., they describe the condition of a man. They are equivalent to the adjectives *sorrowful, afflicted.*

The prisoner at the bar; *at the bar* modifies prisoner.

An army on the march. How is *army* modified?

A house with green window-blinds; house is modified by the words *with green window-blinds,* and *window-blinds* is modified by *green.*

NOTE.—*Of sorrow, in affliction, on the march, &c.,* are called adjuncts of the words whose meaning they modify.

4. The meaning of nouns and pronouns may be modified by a relative clause.

NOTE.—A relative clause is one that ontains *who, which, that, whom whose,* or some other relative word.

EXAMPLES.

Here is a tree which bears sweet apples. The clause *which bears, &c.* modifies the meaning of tree; it describes a quality of it. The whole sentence is equivalent to, "Here is a *sweet apple* tree."

The rich man, who fared sumptuously. How is the meaning of man modified? The fields which are clothed with verdure. How is the word field modified?

Give other examples of nouns modified by a clause.

REMARKS.

1. The modification of nouns and pronouns by *participles*, and by *verbs* in the *infinitive*, is explained under § 81 and § 124.

2. A verb in the infinitive, modifying nouns or adjectives, is in most cases where it has a limiting power, so similar in its import to a *verbal noun*, (§ 46 5,) that it may properly be considered an *adjunct* of the noun or adjective which it modifies; as, A time *to sow*, i. e., *for sowing*. A voice *to sing*; i. e., *for singing*. Ready to *depart*; i. e., *for departing*.

§ 22. ADJUNCT.

NOTE.—*Adjunct* signifies something "joined to," or "connected with."

An adjunct is two or more words connected with another word to modify its meaning.

EXAMPLES.

A youth of a mild disposition; *of a mild disposition*, is the adjunct of youth; i. e. it describes a quality of the youth.

A row of trees; *of trees* is the adjunct of row, it *limits* or *restricts* the meaning of row. A row of what? The adjunct answers the question.

An army of locusts. What is the adjunct? Why so called?

A fork with three prongs. Point out the adjunct.

A tree of rapid growth. What is the adjunct of tree?

A heart to feel. What is the adjunct of heart?

A task to be performed. Point out the adjunct.

EXERCISE.

Write adjuncts to modify the meaning of the following nouns.

Model.

— kindness —	— rose —
The kindness *of a friend.*	A rose *in bloom.*

Friendship —	A tree —	A knife —
Affection —	A flower —	A coach —
Indulgence —	A forest	A book —
Goodness —	A grove —	A clock —

§ 23. MODIFIED SUBJECT.*

What does the *subject* of a sentence denote? How does the subject differ from the object? § § 11,14.

The subject of a sentence may be modified. 1. By an *adjective.* 2. By *another noun*, or a *pronoun.* 3. By an *adjunct.* 4. By a *relative clause.*

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§ 24. THE ADJECTIVE.

NOTE.—*Adjective* means some word added to a noun or name. It is derived from a Latin word signifying "to add to."

1. Adjectives which are used to explain the quality or character of persons or things, are called DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

NOTE.—*Quality* signifies what sort or kind.

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* The subject may be modified in the same manner as a noun or pronoun in any relation; but it is thought desirable to keep the *subject*, as one of the principal parts of the sentence, before the mind of the learner, even at the expense of some repetition.

EXAMPLES.

Good is an adjective; it explains the quality or character of every person or thing to which it is applied; as,

Good men.	Good friends.	Good fruit.
Good houses.	Good scholars.	Good farms.

Why is good an adjective? *Ans.* It explains the quality or character of men, fruit, &c.

EXERCISE.

For the Board or Slate.

(*a*) Join the adjective *bad* to such nouns as you can recollect; also the adjectives,

Sweet —	Bitter —	Idle —
Hard —	Small —	Selfish —
Great —	Round —	Hungry —

(*b*) Join three adjectives to each of the following nouns.

Model.

— sun.

Bright sun.	*Glorious* sun.	*Cloudless* sun.
— moon.	— parents.	— tree.
— home.	— rose.	— house.

(*c*) Point out the descriptive adjectives in the following expressions.

The lofty sky.	The silver moon.
The silent orb.	The dark cloud.
The shaggy brow.	The turbid stream.
The auburn locks.	The dashing waves.
The impetuous temper.	The rosy morn.

2. Adjectives which serve to *define* or *limit* the meaning of nouns or pronouns, are called DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

These are *an* or *a*, *the*,* *one*, *two*, *three*, *&c.*, *this*,† *that*, *these*, *those*, *both*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *other*, *any*, *one*, *all*, *such*, *much*, *many*, *none*, *same*, *few*.

NOTE.—*An* or *a* and *the*, are called ARTICLES, and in parsing may be regarded as such.

EXAMPLES.

Point out the *definitive* adjectives in the following expressions, and designate those which are called articles.

A tree.	This watch.	Every hour.
An apple.	This gold watch.	Every good man.
A high tree.	That monster.	Those tyrants.
The world.	That bloody man.	All lions.
The good man.	Each day.	Another evil.

NOTE.—1. *An* is from a Saxon word which signifies *one*.

2. *An* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound. *A* is used before words beginning with a consonant sound; as, *An* industrious man, *a* man, *an* hour, *a* union.

NOTE.—Union begins with the sound of *y*.

EXERCISE.

Join six definitive adjectives to each of the following nouns.

—book.	—horses.	—people.
—paper.	—flower.	—orator.
—men.	—hour.	—animal.
—road.	—bridge.	—river.

COMPOSITION.

Sentences to be written, including the noun or pronoun, verb, and adjective. Each sentence after a period should begin with a capital letter. The whole should be written in a neat and plain hand.

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* *An* or *a* and *the* have been generally in the later grammars, classed with adjectives.

† The words *this*, *that*, *&c.*, are sometimes substituted for nouns, or the nouns with which they agree are understood. On this account they are called in some grammars, adjective pronouns.

Model.

Subject. The rose.

The fragrant rose perfumes the air. It is opening its *sweet* flower to *the morning* sun. Will the mower cut down *the fair* rose with his *cruel* scythe? The *pale* rose withers and dies.

Subjects.

The kite. The hawk. The bird. The morning.

§ 25. DEFINITION.

1. The adjective is a part of speech joined to a noun or pronoun to qualify, describe, or limit its signification.

Examples of the subject modified by an adjective.

The branching oak resists the blast. *Oak* is the subj ct; *the branching* oak, is the modified subject. Which is the definitive?

Point out the modified subjects in the following sentences.

This fatal day will be remembered.
Gentle manners are winning.
A soft answer turneth away wrath.
The cool breeze is refreshing.
The morning sun was clouded.
The loud thunder pealed.
The tiger is a fierce animal.

REMARK.

A subject which is modified, i. e., explained or limited in either of the ways mentioned under § 21, is called the MODIFIED SUBJECT.

REVIEW.

1. In what ways are nouns and pronouns modified? 2. Explain what is meant by the term adjunct. 3. Explain the meaning of adjective. 4. What are descriptive adjectives? Definitive? 5. Name the definitives. 6. Give

some examples of a subject modified by an adjective. 7. What parts of speech have already been explained? 8. Define the noun. The verb. 9. What is a sentence? Subject? Predicate? 10. Write an example which shall contain a subject, a verb, and an object.

§ 26. *Subject modified by another Noun or Pronoun.*

1. The subject may be modified by another noun or a pronoun; as, Milton, *the poet.* "The poet," modifies Milton; it shows *what* Milton is spoken of. Virtue's reward. Reward is modified by "virtue's."*

EXAMPLES.

Cicero the orator.	Stewart the philosopher.
Gibbs the pirate.	The river Ganges.

How are Cicero, Gibbs, Stewart, and river modified?

2. Each of the nouns thus related may have an adjective; as,

Cicero, the renowned orator. Gibbs, the notorious pirate. The illustrious Milton, the great English poet. Milton is modified by *illustrious*, and by *poet*; and poet is modified or qualified by *great* and *English*.

EXERCISE.

Show how the subjects of the following sentences are modified.

My worthy friend, Sir Roger, told the story.
The planet, Jupiter, has four moons.
Miltiades, the son of Cimon, was an Athenian.
Herschel, the astronomer, discovered the planet Uranus.
Washington's prudence saved his country.

* A noun which ends in *s* preceded or followed by the apostrophe (') denotes the *possessor*, and is said to be in the possessive case.

§ 27. SUBJECT, MODIFIED BY ADJUNCTS.

The subject may be modified by an adjunct. See § 22.

EXAMPLES.

A war in prospect; the adjunct, *in prospect*, modifies war. A man of sorrows; the adjunct, *of sorrows*, modifies man, i. e., defines his condition.

EXERCISE.

Show how the subjects of the following sentences are modified.

The man of science commands respect.
The youth of great promise, found an early grave.
The prisoner in chains, made his escape.
The prisoner at the bar, received his sentence.
A great multitude of people were present.
The storms of wint'ry time will quickly pass.

COMPOSITION.

Supply adjuncts to fill the blank places.

Model.

1. Cowper — — died in the year 1800.
Cowper, *the gifted poet*, died in the year 1800.

2. The terror — — — overpowered his faculties.
The terror *of an eternal judgment*, overpowered his faculties.

3. He — — should build his house upon a rock.
He, *who would act like a wise man*, should build his house upon a rock.

Washington	—	—	died in the year 1799.
Columbus	—	—	was a native of Genoa.
Youth	—	—	often find an early grave.
The pleasures	—	—	are transient.
The man	—	—	will be esteemed.
The counsel	—	—	should be respected.
The robber	—	—	demanded the admiral's purse.
The carriage	—	—	was overturned.

REMARK.

Adjectives are often modified by adjuncts; as, Capable *of seeing*, the adjunct, *of seeing*, modifies capable. Happy *in life*; the adjunct, *in life*, modifies happy.

§ 28. VERBS MODIFIED.

The meaning of the verb is often modified by some word or words connected with it.

EXAMPLES.

The stream flows smoothly; *smoothly* modifies the meaning of the verb; that is, it shows *how* the stream flows.

The boat will arrive to-morrow; *to-morrow* modifies *will arrive* in respect to time; that is, it denotes the time *when*.

The bird sings sweetly; how is the meaning of the verb *sings* modified?

NOTE.—The words above which modify the meaning of the verbs *flows*, *arrive*, and *sings*, are called *adverbs*.

The meaning of a verb may be modified,

1. By an object. See § 11.
2. By an adverb.
3. By an adjunct. See § 22.

§ 29. THE ADVERB.

NOTE.—*Adverb* signifies a word added to another word, from the Latin *ad*, to, and *verbum*, a word.

1. Some adverbs are joined to verbs, to show the *manner* of acting; as, The youth studies diligently. *Diligently* denotes *in what manner*, or *how* the youth studies.

For the Board or Slate.

1. Write two adverbs after each of the following verbs, which will show the manner of acting or doing.

Model.

The water flows —

The water flows *smoothly.*

The water flows *rapidly.*

The pupil writes —	The fire burns —	The child talks —
The sun shines —	The lion roars —	The bird sings —

How are the verbs which you have written modified?

2. Place a noun and a verb before each of the following adverbs:

— proudly.	— ill.	— well.	— foolishly.
— correctly.	— cruelly.	— unwisely.	— justly.

2. Some adverbs denote the *time* of acting or doing; as *Now* I will go; *now* is an adverb; it denotes time.

My cousin will arrive *to-morrow.* Which is the adverb?

NOTE.—Adverbs of time answer to the question, *when?*

EXERCISE.

Point out the adverbs of time, and the verbs which they modify.

The boat arrived yesterday.	I heard the news before.
When did his brother arrive?	I will write soon.
The steamer will come to-day.	He will never forget you.

For the Board or Slate.

Write five sentences, each of which shall include one of the following adverbs of time.

To-morrow.	Already.	Hereafter.
Again.	Lately.	Never.

3. Some adverbs denote place; as, I am *here;* you are *there;* that is, in *this place,* in *that place.*

EXERCISE.

Point out the adverbs of place.

Whither has he gone? [that is, to what place.]
Where I am, there shall ye be.
The day draws near.
Whence art thou? [that is, from what place.]

For the Board or Slate.

Write sentences which shall include the following adverbs of place:

Here. There. Where. Whence. Thence.

4. Some adverbs denote *assent, denial, doubt;* as, *Yes, no, not, undoubtedly, truly, perhaps, probably, possibly.*

5. Some adverbs denote *comparison, quantity;* as, *More, most, very, much, enough.*

6. Most adverbs answer to the questions, *how? when?* or *how often?* as, The prattler talks—*how?* Ans. *Foolishly.*

The boat arrived—*when?* Ans, *To-day.* You come to town—*how often?* Ans. *Frequently.*

7. Adverbs are often joined to adjectives, to modify their meaning; as, *More* pleasing; *most* fanciful; *very* true.

8. Adverbs sometimes modify the meaning of other adverbs; as, *Very* soon; *most* assuredly.

9. Adverbs rarely modify prepositions; as, *Almost* to; *directly* under.

§ 30. DEFINITION.

The adverb is a part of speech joined to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, to modify their meaning.

COMPOSITION.

Sentences to be written, each of which may include one of the following adverbs:

Diligently.	Rapidly.	Assuredly.	Pleasantly.
Undoubtedly.	Possibly.	Probably.	Cheerfully.
Truly.	To-day.	To-morrow.	Often.
Yes.	Not.	More.	Most.

REVIEW.

1. What is the subject called when explained or described by other words? 2. What is the modified predicate? 3. In what ways is the meaning of the verb modified? What does the word *adverb* signify? 5. Mention what different classes of adverbs denote. 6. With what parts of speech, besides the verb, are adverbs connected? Define the adverb.

§ 31. ADJUNCTS OF THE VERB.

Two or more words connected with the verb, to modify its meaning, are called *the adjunct* of the verb.

EXAMPLES.

He loves to learn; to learn is the adjunct of the verb *loves*, and modifies its meaning.

He desires to improve. Point out the adjunct of the verb *desires.*

NOTE.—The adjuncts *to learn, to improve,* are verbs in the infinitive mode, which will be explained under the subject of *Verbs,* in Part II.

I hope that you are well. The adjunct *that you are well,* modifies or limits the meaning of the verb *hope.*

REMARK.

The most common adjunct of the verb is a preposition with its object.

§ 32. THE PREPOSITION.

NOTE.—The word preposition signifies a placing before, or a place before. (Latin, *præ, before*, and *positio, a placing*, or *a place*.)

EXAMPLES.

The snow lies — the ground. The word which should stand *before* ground, to connect it *in sense* with *lies*, is called a preposition. The snow lies *on* the ground.

He went — England — Cork. England may be connected with *went* by the preposition *from*. Cork may be connected with *went* by *to*. He went *from* England *to* Cork.

1. The preposition is followed by a noun or something standing for a noun, which is called *the object* of the preposition.

EXAMPLES.

Righteousness tendeth to life. *Life* is the object of the preposition *to*; *to life* is the *adjunct* of the verb tendeth.

Columbus sailed across the Atlantic. *Across* is the preposition. What is its object? Point out the *adjunct* of sailed.

For the Board or Slate.

(*a*) Place words before and after the following prepositions to make sense. The verbs *go, went, come*, with the pronouns *I, he, they*, can be used before most of them.

Model.

A man *of* sorrows. He went *into* the house.

—of—	—into—	—from—	—on—
—beyond—	—upon—	—without—	—after—
—by—	—over—	—near—	—with—
—up—	—about—	—in—	—down—
—below—	—against—	—before—	—above—
—within—	—among—	—under—	—behind—
—to—	—at—	—for—	—through—

(*b*) Supply prepositions for the unfinished sentences that follow:

He travelled — Europe.
He lived — the Arabs.
They cast him — the pit.
He was acquainted — grief.
He fell — his sword.
The rain fell — the clouds.
The fruit lies — the ground.
The eagle hovered — his head
The stone rolled — the hill.
He was crushed — the wheels.

NOTE.—In all these instances the preposition, with the noun following, modifies the verb of the sentence.

He travelled *whither*, or *to what place?* The preposition with the noun, answers the question.

NOTE.—A whole sentence is frequently the object of a preposition; as, The crime of being a young man. *Being a young man*, is the object of the preposition *of*.

2. A preposition, with its object, is called the adjunct of the word which it modifies.

EXAMPLES.

Point out the adjuncts of the verbs in the following sentences:

The sun shines upon the earth.
The wind blows from the north.
The boat glides over the waves.
Difficulties are overcome by exertion.
They divided the captives among themselves.

3. Prepositions with their objects, modify *nouns*; as, The land of promise. *Of promise* modifies land, or is the adjunct of land.

4. Prepositions with their objects, modify *adjectives*; as, Worthy of esteem. *Of esteem* modifies worthy. True to nature. *To nature* modifies, or is an adjunct of true.

§ 33. DEFINITION.

1. The preposition is a part of speech used to connect words, and show their relation.

2. Prepositions are followed by nouns, pronouns, and clauses.

3. Prepositions with their objects, are adjuncts of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and sometimes of adverbs.

COMPOSITION.

Write sentences about the TRAVELLER, describing his journeyings from one place to another, his modes of conveyance, &c.; and use the prepositions

to, from, through, in, among, around, &c.

REVIEW.

1. What is the signification of preposition? 2. Before what words does it stand? 3. Define the preposition. 4. What parts of speech does the preposition with its *object* modify? 5. In what ways is the meaning of the verb modified?

General exercise on the Parts of Speech and principles already explained.

The following questions may serve as a guide in examining the sentences below:

If the part of speech is a noun, inquire, Why so called? Is it the *subject* or *object*? Is it modified or explained by any other word?

If an adjective, inquire, Why so called? Is it descriptive or definitive? What word does it limit or describe?

If a verb, inquire, Why so called? Is it transitive or intransitive? Why? Is its meaning modified by other words?

Make similar inquiries in regard to other Parts of Speech.

The sun gives light by day.
The ships sail over the boisterous deep.
Clarion notes rang sharply on the ear.
It was a sultry day of summer.
The heavens declare the glory of God.
The integrity of the upright shall guide them.
The fruit of the righteous is a tree of life.
The lordly lion leaves his lonely lair.
The moon shines on the brow of a mountain.
Knowledge enlarges the mind.
Milton, the author of "Paradise Lost," was blind.

MODIFIED PREDICATE.

1. The predicate is a word or a combination of words used to express that which is asserted of the subject; as, The flower *blooms*; time *is short*; *blooms*, and *is short*, are predicates.

2. Any verb may be a predicate. The verb *be*, parts of which are *am*, *art*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *wast*, *were*, commonly has some word or words connected with it to constitute a predicate; as, The wind *is blowing*; time *is precious*.

3. The predicate modified by some word or words connected with it, is called the *modified predicate*.

EXPLANATION.

The swallow flies swiftly through the air. What is asserted of the subject? Ans. *Flies*. What expresses that which is asserted of the subject? Ans. *The predicate*. Is the predicate modified by any other word? Ans. The predicate "flies" is modified by *swiftly*, which expresses *how* the bird flies. What, then, is the modified predicate? Ans. *Flies swiftly through the air*.

The people depend chiefly on fishing for subsistence. The modified predicate is, *depend chiefly on fishing for subsistence*.

EXAMPLES.

Point out the *subject*, *predicate*, and *modified predicate*, in the following sentences.

Peter wept bitterly for his sin.
He recited the lesson imperfectly.
They divided the inheritance among them.
Rivers flow into the ocean.
The sailors abstained from intoxicating drinks.
Preparations were made for the funeral.
The body was borne to the church on the sabbath following.
The church was filled with sad countenances.

§ 35. ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.*

NOTE.—Analysis signifies resolving, dividing, or separating.

1. The analysis of a simple sentence consists in separating or dividing the sentence, into the parts of which it is composed, and in showing the relations of those parts.

§ 36. METHOD OF ANALYZING.

1. Point out the subject of the sentence.
2. Point out the predicate of the sentence.
3. Point out the modified subject.
4. Point out the modified predicate.
5. Point out the adjuncts or modifiers of such other words as are modified or limited.

NOTE.—A sentence in its simplest form has no adjuncts or modifiers; as Charles reads.

§ 37. MODELS OF ANALYZING.

(*a*) Good breeding consists in a respectful behavior to all.

Name the parts of speech in this sentence.

1. *Breeding* is the subject; it specifies the thing spoken of.
2. *Consists* is the predicate; it is used to express that which is asserted of breeding.
3. *Good breeding* is the modified subject; good is the *adjective*.
4. *Consists in a respectful behavior to all*, is the modified predicate.
5. *Respectful* modifies behavior; it shows what kind of behavior; *to all* is the adjunct of *behavior*. *All* means *all persons*, and is the object of the preposition *to*.

(*b*) The early natives of this country fell into the hands of the Romans.

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*Only a few simple sentences are given here for analysis, which may serve to fix in the memory of the pupil the foregoing explanations. The subject will be resumed in succeeding parts of the book.

Name the parts of speech in this sentence

1. *Natives* is the subject. Why?
2. *Fell* is the predicate. Why?
3. *The early natives of this country*, is the modified subject.
4. *Fell into the hands of the Romans*, is the modified predicate.
5. *Of this country* is the adjunct of *natives*. *The* is a *definitive*, *early* is an *adjective*; both modifying *natives*, the subject.
6. *Into the hands of the Romans*, is the adjunct of *fell*, the predicate.

Of the Romans is the adjunct of *hands*; it answers the question, whose hands?

The is a definitive; it modifies or limits *hands* and *Romans*.

Hands and *Romans* are objects, respectively, of the prepositions *into* and *of*.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED.

Point out the parts of speech in each sentence; then proceed to analyze.

1. The patient ox submits to the yoke.
2. The angry waves dash violently.
3. The affecting story of the crucifixion has melted hard hearts into penitence.
4. The memory of Washington is embalmed in the hearts of his countrymen.
5. The sun sank in the western horizon, in clouds of foreboding darkness.
6. I heard the crashing of the pointed rocks through the bottom of the ship.

COMPOSITION.

Supply *modified predicates* for the following modified subjects.

Model.

Modified subject. *Modified predicate.*

Many enemies of public liberty —

Many enemies of public liberty, *have been distinguished by their private virtues.*

A contented mind —.
Industrious habits —.
The trees of the forest —.
The flowers of the field —.
Idleness in the season of youth—.
Great advantage —
The duties of children at school.
The darkness of the night —.
Children who are obedient to their parents —.
The world which we live upon —.

§ 38. THE FORMATION OF SENTENCES.

Model.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
Washington —	— commanded.

Washington commanded. (The simplest, that is, the unmodified form.)

Modified subject.	*Modified predicate.*
The illustrious Washington	*bravely* commanded.

The illustrious Washington bravely commanded.

The illustrious Washington, the son of a Virginian planter, } bravely commanded the American army in the revolutionary war.

NOTE.—It will be seen that a simple sentence consists of two parts, viz: a *subject* and a *predicate*, or a *modified subject* and a *modified predicate*.

COMPOSITION.*

Let sentences be formed after the model above.

Subjects.	*Predicates.*
Columbus	discovered.
Trees	grow.
Ship	sails.
Fire	consumes.

§ 39. CONJUNCTIONS.

NOTE.—Conjunction is derived from a Latin word which signifies "to join together."

1. Conjunctions connect words.

EXAMPLES.

Charles and James. *And*, the conjunction, connects Charles and James; that is, it shows that Charles and James are spoken of together.

* Some verbal explanation from the teacher may be necessary to show the pupils how they may vary these sentences from the model.

Charles and James walked and played. *Walked* and *played* are connected by *and*.

James nor John. Charles or David. *Nor* and *or* are conjunctions.

2. Conjunctions connect sentences.

I love him *because* he is good. *Because* connects the two sentences. The list of conjunctions, according to most grammarians, is as follows:

*And, as, both, because, for, if, that, or, nor, either, neither, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, save, notwithstanding.**

EXERCISE.

Point out the conjunctions and show what words or sentences they connect.

Cicero and Demosthenes were the greatest orators of their age.

Oh Athenians! am I your enemy, because I gave you two happy days?

I doubt whether he ever will be rich.

Neither the captains nor the soldiers were saved.

For the Board or Slate.

Supply conjunctions to connect the words or sentences separated by the blank space.

He reads — writes. He neither reads — studies.
I neither command — forbid. He is despised — he is poor.
He is either a knave — a dunce. I ask — you believe it to be true.
The wind subsides — the clouds disperse.

COMPOSITION.

Write sentences, each of which shall include one of the following conjunctions.

NOTE.—*Nor* must be used after *neither*; *or* after *either*.

And,	Whether,	Than,	Unless,
Because,	Neither,	Or,	Either.

* A more particular account of the conjunctions will be found in Parts II. and III.

§ 40. DEFINITION.

1. The conjunction is a part of speech used to connect words and sentences.

§ 41. INTERJECTIONS.

NOTE.—Interjection is from two Latin words, inter, *between*, and jacio, *to throw* or *cast*. (To throw in between.)

1. An interjection is a part of speech used in giving utterance to some sudden feeling or emotion; as, Oh! alas!

2. The term *interjection*, which means throwing between, is not always proper; for the exclamatory words O! oh! alas! &c., generally stand at the beginning rather than in the middle of a sentence.

3. Interjections are more properly called exclamations.

4. Verbs are sometimes used in exclamations; as, Hail! Welcome! Behold!

5. Interjections are followed by a noun, pronoun, or clause; as, Ah me! thou! Oh for some one to place me, &c.

GENERAL REVIEW OF PART I.

1. Name the parts of speech. 2. Describe and define the noun. 3. Describe and define the verb. 4. What is a sentence? What parts of speech must be used to form a sentence? 5. Give examples of sentences. 6. What is said of a transitive verb? 7. Explain the difference between the *subject* and the *object*. 8. What is said of the verb *to be*? 9. Give the definition of a sentence. 10. Describe and define the pronoun. 11. What is the meaning of modify? 12. In what ways is the subject modified? 13. Describe and define the adjective. 14. Point out the different kinds of adjectives. 15. In what ways is the predicate modified? 16. Describe and define the adverb. 17. Describe and define the preposition. 18. In what does the analysis of a sentence consist? 19. State the method of analyzing. 20. Describe and define the conjunction. 21. Describe the interjection.

PART II.

[*Recapitulation of terms and definitions fully illustrated in Part I.*]

§ 42. PARTS OF SPEECH.

Words are divided into eight sorts or kinds, called *parts of speech;* viz:

The NOUN.	The VERB.
" PRONOUN.	" ADVERB.
" ADJECTIVE.	" PREPOSITION.

The CONJUNCTION.
" INTERJECTION.

NOTE.—The ARTICLES *an* or *a*, and *the*, are classed with the adjectives.

§ 43. DEFINITIONS.

[Terms used in parsing.]

1. A *noun* is the *name* by which any person or thing is called; as, *Charles*, *Boston*, *road*, *virtue*. See § 8.

2. A *verb* is the part of speech by means of which any thing is asserted; as, The wind *blows;* the tree *shakes*. See § 10.

3. A *pronoun* is a part of speech used instead of a noun; as, *He*, *she*, *it*, *who*, *which*, *that*. See § 19.

4. An *adjective* is a part of speech joined to a noun or pronoun to qualify, describe or limit its signification; as, *Good* men, a *wide* road. See § 24.

5. An *adverb* is a part of speech joined to verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, to modify their meaning; as, He conducts *prudently*. See § 29.

6. A *preposition* is a part of speech used to connect words and show their relation; as, He went *from* Portland *to* Boston. See § 32.

7. A *conjunction* is a part of speech used to connect words and sentences. See § 39.

8. An *interjection* is a part of speech used in giving utterance to some sudden feeling or emotion; as, *O! alas!* See § 41.

TERMS EMPLOYED IN ANALYZING.

SENTENCE.

SUBJECT. PREDICATE.

ADJUNCT.

MODIFIED SUBJECT. MODIFIED PREDICATE.

§ 44. DEFINITIONS.

1. A *sentence* is any collection of words comprising a *subject* and *predicate;* as, The *storm rages.* See § 13.

2. The *subject* denotes that of which any thing is asserted; as, The *mountains* are covered. See § 14.

3. The *predicate* expresses that which is asserted of the subject; as, The mountains *are covered.* See §§ 15 and 16.

4. An *adjunct* is two or more words connected with another word to modify its meaning. See § 22.

5. The *modified subject* is the subject explained, described or limited by one or more words; as, *The lofty mountains* are covered. See §§ 23, 26 and 27.

6. The *modified predicate* is the predicate modified or limited by some word or words connected with it; as, The lofty mountains *are covered deeply with snow.* See § 34.

NOTE.—*The modified subject* is usually termed the *logical subject*, and the modified predicate, the *logical predicate*; the word *modified* is preferred to *logical*, as it is more strictly a grammatical term.

DIVISION OF NOUNS.

§ 45. COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS.

1. A single *name* is often applicable to a great number of objects; as, Animal, plant, river, stone, mountain.

The name *animal* is applicable to every living being. The name *man* is applicable to each of a certain class of living beings. So likewise each of the names, *bird, fish, reptile, quadruped*, is applicable to a whole class of beings and to every individual of a class. The names *robin, thrush, lark, eagle*, and *raven*, denote distinct classes of birds, and each of them is applicable to every individual of their own class.

In like manner, the name *plant* is applicable to almost every thing that grows from the ground.

2. A name which is applicable alike to a class, and to each individual of a class of objects, is called a *general* or *common* noun.

3. Sometimes a *particular* name is given to an individual of a certain class, to distinguish it from the rest; as, *Adam, Homer, Bucephalus, Amazon, Andes.*

4. Particular names which denote *individual objects* are called *proper** *nouns.*

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* The word proper, as used in this connexion, signifies, "belonging to the individual," "not common," (Lat. *proprius*, "peculiar.")

§ 46. DEFINITIONS.

NOUNS are divided into two general classes; *Common* and *Proper*.

1. COMMON NOUNS are names given to whole classes; as, *Animal*, *plant*, *river*, *stone*, *grain*.

2. PROPER NOUNS are names given to individuals; as, *Washington*, *Boston*, *Amazon*, *Andes*.

Common nouns are divided into *collective*, *abstract*, *participial* or *verbal*, and *compound*.

3. A *collective* noun is the name of a body or collection of individuals; as, *People*, *flock*, *council*, *assembly*.

4. An *abstract* noun is the name of some quality; as, *Cheerfulness*, *vanity*, *goodness*, *frailty*.

5. A *participial* or *verbal* noun is the name of some action, or state of being; as, The *cheering* of the multitude. The *singing* of birds.

NOTE.—Such nouns are called *verbal*, because they are derived from verbs; *participial*, from having the form of a participle.

6. A *compound* noun is a name composed of two or more words, which are generally separated by a hyphen; as, *Rail-road*, *will-with-a-wisp*.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. A common noun often becomes proper when it denotes an inanimate object or an abstract quality personified; as, Winter! awful thou. Time! how ew thy value weigh.

2. A common noun becomes proper, when, with the article *the*, it distinguishes some particular place, object or event, as remarkable above others of the same name; as, The Bar, the Park, the Common, the Tempest, the Dark-Day, the Deluge.

3. A proper noun becomes common, when applied to a class of individuals, to designate in them some character or quality of the person or object to which the name was originally given; as, He is *the Cicero* of his age. He never will become a *Washington*.

4. Proper names preceded by an article genevally become common; but this is not the case with names that designate a whole people; as, *The Americans*, *the Russians*, *the Indians*; but when such nouns are applicable to individuals, or to any part of the people thus designated, they become common; as, *Americans*, *Russians*, *Indians*.

EXERCISE.

Write on the board or slate, in one column, the *proper* nouns; in another column the *common* nouns.

It is the business of geography to describe the earth. The science which teaches the size, form, nature, and motions of the sun, moon and stars, is called astronomy. The grand divisions of the Eastern Continent, are Europe, Africa and Asia. A river is a large stream of water; as, The Mississippi, the Amazon, the Nile, the Danube, the Ganges, &c.

Columbus discovered America. George Washington commanded the American army in the war of the revolution. The career of Cromwell was short. Immediately after his death, measures were taken to restore Charles to the throne of England. This was opposed by a powerful party.

Several tribes of Indians,* among which were the Narragansets and Mohegans, submitted to the king of England.

ORAL EXERCISE.†

1. Are there as many names in the English language as objects which can be described? Give some examples of names each of which is applicable to a number of objects.
2. Which name is applicable to the largest number of objects, animal or man? Animal or bird? Bird or robin? Bird or lark? Reptile or worm? Tree or maple? Plant or tree?
3. Mention the names of as many animals as you can recollect? Is each of the names given applicable to more than one animal?
4. What kind of nouns are those which you have mentioned? Why so called? Define a common noun.
5. Which noun is the more general or common, mountain or Alps? river or Amazon? man or Washington? boy or Charles? Why?
6. What kind of nouns are those which designate individuals of a class? Why?
7. What is an abstract noun? A collective noun? A participial noun? A compound noun?

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* *Indians* is a common noun; *the Indians* would be a *proper noun*. *The Narragansets* is a proper noun; Narragansets would be a common noun. See Remark 4, above.

† Questions like these contained in the oral exercises should be multiplied until the learner is perfectly familiar with the subject under examination.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

1. The term property, (Lat. *proprius* "peculiar to,") as applied to the noun or pronoun, signifies the quality of representing the *number*, *sex*, and *certain relations*, of objects.

2. The property of a noun or pronoun by which it designates the *speaker*, the person or thing *spoken to*, or *spoken of*, is called *person*.

3. Nouns which denote but one can be changed in their form so as to denote more than one; as, *house* denotes but one object, but when changed in form by adding *s*, (*houses*) it denotes more than one. The property or quality in a noun of distinguishing *one* from more than *one*, is called *number*.

4. One class of nouns presents the idea of *male* beings, another of *female* beings, another that the objects which they denote belong to neither sex. This property in a noun of distinguishing the sex of objects, is called *gender*.

5. A noun in one position or relation in a sentence denotes the *agent*, or *subject*; in another position or state it denotes the *object*; in another, it denotes the *possessor*. This property of the noun or pronoun of denoting the condition or relation of objects is called *case*.

The properties of nouns and pronouns are *person*, *number*, *gender* and *case*.

§ 47. PERSON.

Person (Lat., *persona*, "character,") in Grammar signifies character or relation. In conversing or writing there are three relations implied; viz: that of the one speaking, that of the one spoken to, and that which is spoken of.

1. The first relation or character is that of the *speaker*, who is denoted by the pronoun *I*.

NOTE.—The *name* of the speaker is sometimes expressed after *I*; as, *I*, John saw these things.

2. The second relation or character is that of the person *spoken to*,* who is addressed by name, or by the pronouns *you* or *thou*.

3. The third relation is that of the person or thing *spoken*

* The name of the one addressed is not generally expressed, as this person is present with the speaker, and is designated by a look or gesture.

of, which is denoted by some noun, or by the pronouns *he*, *she*, or *it*.

NOTE.—The person of the noun or pronoun requires a change in the form of the verb, which [change] will be explained in the proper place.

EXERCISE.

Point out the speaker, the one spoken to, and that which is spoken of.

Believe me, my friend, I shall never cease to remember your kindness.

Come unto me, all ye that labor and are heavy laden, and I will give you rest.

I go to prepare a place for you.

§ 48. DEFINITIONS.

1. Person is a property of the noun or pronoun, by which it denotes the speaker, the person addressed, or that which is spoken of.

There are three persons; *first*, *second* and *third*.
The first denotes the speaker.
The second denotes the person spoken to.
The third denotes that which is spoken of.

§ 49. NUMBER.

When we say *a house*, how many do we speak of?

If we wish to speak of more than one house, what change shall we make in the word house? *Ans.* Add *s*,—it will make *houses*.

When one object is spoken of, the noun is said to be of the *singular number*; when more than one object is spoken of, the noun is said to be of the *plural number*.

1. The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular.

NOTE.—*Singular*, signifies "one person or thing." *Plural*, (Latin, *plus*,) signifies "more than one."

EXAMPLES.

Sing.	*Plu.*
Horse	horses
Road	roads
Mountain	mountains

NOTE.—When the last letter of the word in the singular, will not unite in sound with *s*, the plural is formed by annexing *es*.

§ 50. DEFINITION.

1. Number is a property of the noun, by which it denotes *one*, or *more than one*.

2. A noun in the singular number denotes only *one*.

3. A noun in the plural number denotes *more than one*.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. When the noun ends in *x*, *z*, *ss*, *sh*, or *ch*, (soft,) *es* is added to form the plural; as, *Fox*, *foxes*; *glass*, *glasses*; *brush*, *brushes*, &c. See note above.

2. Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, form their plural in *ves*; as, Wife, *wives*; loaf, *loaves*.

The following nouns and their compounds, ending in *f*, form their plurals regularly; life, fife, safe, brief, chief, grief, kerchief, mischief, dwarf, scarf, turf, surf, gulf, roof, proof, hoof, and such as end in *ff*. except *staff*, which has *staves*.

3. Nouns ending in *y* after a *consonant*, change the *y* into *ies*, to form the plural; as, Body, *bodies*; lady, *ladies*. But nouns ending in *y* after a *vowel*, have their plural regular; as, Valley, *valleys*; boy, *boys*; day, *days*.

4. The plural of the following nouns is irregularly formed:

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Child	children	Louse	lice
Woman	women	Goose	geese
Ox	oxen	Mouse	mice

5. The following nouns have two forms in the plural, with different significations.

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
Brother	brothers (of one family)	brethren (of one society.)
Die	dies (for coining)	dice for gaming.
Penny	pennies } distinct	pence } applied to
Pea	peas } objects.	pease } a mass.
Cow	cows	kine
Genius	geniuses, persons of genius.	genii, a kind of aerial spirits.

6. For the plural of certain nouns adopted from foreign languages, see Table No. I, near the end of the book.

7. Some nouns, from the nature of the things which they denote, have the singular form only; as, *Wheat, pitch, gold, sloth, &c.* Some words of this class, when used to denote different kinds of the substances or qualities which they represent, admit of a plural form; as, *Wine, wines; vice, vices.*

8. Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, *Annals, ashes, &c.*; for a list, see Table I, 2, near the end of the book.

9. Some nouns have the same form in both numbers; as, *Mathematics, ethics, means, species, series, deer, sheep.*

News, which was formerly used both in the singular and plural, is now regarded as singular only.

10. Several nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, have *es*, in the plural; as, *Potato, potatoes*; but canto, junto, solo, take *s* only.

11. The words *cannon, shot, sail*; also the words *horse, foot, infantry* and *cavalry*, comprehending bodies of soldiers, are used as plural nouns; as, "Several shot being fired;" "several sail of ships." The word *fish* has a plural, but is used in the plural sense without a change of form.

12. To express the plural of a proper noun with a title prefixed, the title only is usually varied in writing, to express the plural; as, The Messrs Harper; the Misses Young. But in regard to the plural of such complex nouns, usage is not uniform. Some good writers vary the name and not the title, and in conversation this usage is more common; as, The Miss Youngs. With the title of *Mrs.*, or the numerals *two* or *three* prefixed, the name only is varied to express the plural.

13. Compounds in which the principal word is put first, vary the principal word to form the plurals; as, *Father*-in-law; *plural, Fathers*-in-law. Compounds ending in *ful* and all those in which the principal word is put last, have the regular plural form.—*G. Brown.*

Write the plural of the following nouns.

Quill	woman	wolf	church	guide	man
land	penny	thief	dress	hoof	self
life	goose.	hero	gulf	mouse	wharf
grape.	pea	tooth.	brother	chief	genius

§ 51. GENDER.

1. Some nouns with a certain termination represent male beings; as, Act*or*, abb*ot*.

2. With a different termination they represent female beings; as, Act*ress*, abb*ess*. So likewise—

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Lion	lioness.	Count	countess.
Author	authoress.	Emperor	empress.

For a complete list, see Table II., near the end of the book.

3. In many instances different words are used to denote the different sexes; as, Boy, girl; friar, nun. In like manner—

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Man	woman.	Uncle	aunt.
Beau	belle.	Brother	sister.
Father	mother.	Hart	roe.

See Table II. 2, near the end of the book, for a list.

4. The sex is sometimes denoted by annexing or prefixing another word; as, *Land-lord, land-lady; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; he-goat, she-goat.*

5. All objects, which belong to neither the male nor female kind, are said to be of the neuter gender.

NOTE.—Neuter signifies *neither*, or belonging to *neither* sex.

§ 52. DEFINITIONS.

1. Gender is a property of the noun or pronoun, by which it distinguishes sex.

2. The *masculine gender* denotes the *male sex.*

3. The *feminine gender* denotes the *female sex.*

4. The *neuter gender* denotes things which are *neither* male nor female.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Some nouns denote objects which are either male or female; as, *Child, parent, neighbor.* Such are sometimes said to be of the COMMON GENDER.*

2. Things without life are sometimes figuratively represented as having the attributes of living beings; to such the distinction of sex is applied; as when we say of a ship, *she* sails well, or of the sun, *he* is rising. Things remarkable for power, size, &c., are spoken of as masculine. Things beautiful, amiable, or productive, as feminine.

3. When we speak in a general manner of a species; as, The dog, the cat, &c., to the species which is remarkable for boldness, strength, or generosity, the male sex is generally attributed; to animals of opposite qualities the female sex is attributed; as, "The dog is remarkable for *his* sagacity." "The cat, as *she* beholds the light, contracts the ball of *her* eye." Creatures whose sex is unknown or unimportant to be regarded, are often spoken of as neuter; as, If a man steal an ox or sheep and sell *it*, &c.

ORAL EXERCISE.

1. How many does the word river denote? Change the form so that it shall denote more than one. Change the following nouns to the plural form; knife, strife, wife, chief, fox, glass, brush, vanity, money, child, emphasis, analysis, memorandum, gymnasium. See Table I.

What is that property of a noun called which distinguishes one from more than one?

2. What is the distinction between lion and lioness? duke and duchess? master and mistress? father and mother?

How is this distinction denoted? *Ans.* By difference in termination, or by different words.

By what property of the noun is the distinction of sex denoted?

3. What is number. How is the plural number formed? What are the variations from the general rule? What is gender? What does the word gender signify? Neuter?

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* The term *common* does not refer to any distinction in sex, but is applied to a certain class of nouns, which, from their form, are indeterminate in respect to gender; but the context generally determines to which sex they are to be referred.

§ 53. CASE.

CASE. (Lat. *casus*, "an end," or "a close,") denotes a variation in the *ending* of words which can be declined. This is its meaning in Latin and Greek Grammars.

1. In English Grammar, case denotes "condition," "relation," or "position."

EXAMPLES.

The hunter killed a panther. A panther killed *the hunter*.

In what relation is the noun "hunter" in the first sentence? Ans. In the relation of subject. What is the case called which denotes this relation? Ans. "Nominative," (from the Latin word *nominativus*, naming;) because it names or designates that which is spoken of, that is, the subject.

In what relation is the noun "hunter" in the second example? Ans. In the relation of "object."

What is the case termed which denotes the object? Ans. The "objective case."

What kind of verbs requires the objective case?

What case follows prepositions? Ans. The objective.

How can the nominative case be known? Ans. By inquiring which word denotes the person or thing spoken of, or doing something.

EXERCISE.

Point out the *nominative* and *objective* cases in the following sentences.

The law forbids theft.
Brutus assassinated Cæsar.
Cicero punished the conspirators.
Anthony beheaded Cicero.
Earthquakes have destroyed cities.

2. A noun or pronoun, which denotes the owner or possessor, is in the *possessive case*; as, *Washington's* sword.

3. A noun, which stands unconnected with the subject or predicate in a sentence, is in the independent state or *case*; as, On *comrades! Lazarus!* come forth.

§ 54. DEFINITIONS.

1. Case is the property of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the relation or state of nouns and pronouns in a sentence.

2. There are four cases, Nominative, Possessive, Objective, and Independent,* (or absolute.)

3. A noun in the nominative case is the *subject* of the verb.

4. A noun in the possessive case denotes *ownership*.

5. A noun in the objective case is the *object* of the verb.

6. The independent case is that of a noun or pronoun, which stands unconnected, in construction, with the subject or predicate of a sentence.

NOTE.—A noun or a pronoun, joined with a participle, and independent of the rest of the sentence, in construction, is sometimes said to be in the case *absolute*. The case independent, as defined above, is intended to apply to every condition or state of nouns or pronouns standing unconnected, in which an ellipsis is not obviously intended by the writer or speaker.

REVIEW.

1. What are the properties of nouns? 2. Describe and define person. 3. What does the word person signify? 4. What do the different persons denote? 5. How is the distinction of sex denoted? 6. What does the word case signify? 7. What does it mean in English Grammar? 8. In the sentence, *the child reads*, in what case is child? 9. How can you know that child is in the nominative case? Ans. By inquiring who reads; this will show who is spoken of. 10. In the sentence, *the child reads*, will you supply an objective case? 11. In the sentence, *the child reads his brother's book*, will you point out the nominative, possessive, and objective cases?

§ 55. ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Parsing is derived from the Latin word *pars*, "a part."

1. Parsing is naming and describing the *parts of speech* which compose a sentence, and showing their connection and government.

* The term independent, refers to the *state* or *condition* of the noun in a sentence, but not to its "relation." A noun may be in an independent condition or state when it has no grammatical relation to either the subject or predicate of the sentence.

2. In this work the terms *parse* and *parsing* are applied to an exercise, which consists in a particular examination of the parts of speech in a sentence.

The following questions may serve as a guide in parsing the noun. 1. Why called a noun? 2. Proper or common? Why? 3. What person? 4. What number? Why? 5. What gender? Why? 6. What case? Why?

3. The terms *analysis* and *analyzing* are applied to a particular examination of sentences. The following questions may serve as a guide in analyzing a sentence. 1. What is the subject? Why? 2. What is the predicate? Why? 3. How is the subject modified? 4. How is the predicate modified? 5. What is the modified subject? 6. What is the modified predicate? 7. What are the adjuncts? 8. Name the parts of speech in the sentence. The learner will be directed to *parse* words, and *analyze* sentences.

4. The sentence should in all cases be analyzed, before the words are parsed.

Here review §§ 35, 36, 37; also §§ 14, 15.

NOMINATIVE CASE.

§ 56. RULE.

The nominative case is the subject of the verb.

EXERCISE.

MODEL OF ANALYZING AND PARSING.

SENTENCE. Trees grow.

ANALYZE.—Trees is the subject; *that of which something is said.*
Grow is the predicate; *that which is used to assert.*

PARSE.—Trees is a noun; *the name of something.*
Class—a common noun; *a general name.*
Person—of the third person; *it denotes the thing spoken of.*
Number—of the plural number; *it denotes more than one.*
Gender—of the neuter gender; *it denotes neither male nor female.*
Case—in the nominative case; *it is the subject of the verb.*
Construction—it is the subject of the verb grow, according to Rule, § 56.

Water flows.	The earth revolves swiftly.[1]
Birds fly.	The boat glides rapidly.[1]
Time flies.	Fragrant[2] flowers bloom in the garden.[3]
Boys learn.	The lark mounts high in the air.[3]

[1] § 29, 1. [2] §§ 24 and 25. [3] § 22.

§ 57. THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

1. The possessive singular is generally formed by adding *s*, with an apostrophe before it, to the nominative; as, "*Swift's* Journal;" "*Spencer's* Anecdotes;" "*Euripides's* Tragedies;" "Dr. *Lawrence's* study;" "*Horace's* Art of Poetry;" "*Boswell's* Life of Johnson."

2. The possessive case *plural*, ending in *es*, has the apostrophe, but omits the *s*, as, *Eagles'* wings.

3. When the noun ends in *s*, *x*, *z*, or *ce*, the *s* is sometimes omitted, if the following word begins with *s*, or contains an *s* or *x* in the first syllable; as, Conscience' sake. The *s* is more commonly omitted in poetry than in prose.

NOTE.—For further explanation of the possessive case, see Syntax, Part III.

EXERCISE.

For the Board or Slate.

Model.

Boy – book	boy's book.
Horse – mane	horse's mane.
Horses – (plural) mane	horses' mane.

Write the following nouns according to the model.

John	knife.	Joseph	hat.
Father	farm.	Brother	cane.
James	ball.	George	watch.
Virtue	reward.	Cowper	poem.

Webster	grammar.
Ross	voyage.
Eagles.	wings.

Which nouns denote the owners, in the sentences above? Which the thing owned or possessed?

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*An apostrophe indicates an omission of a letter, as in call'd; the apostrophe indicates the omission of *e*. As the sign of the possessive case, the apostrophe seems more properly to denote the omission of *i* or *e*, than a contraction of *his*, *her*, or *its*. See *Crombie's Etymology*.

§ 58. RULE.

A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, limits the meaning of the name of the thing possessed.

EXAMPLES.

The president's house. Which is the thing *possessed?* Which noun denotes the *owner* or *possessor?* What does it limit?

Virtue's reward. Which noun denotes the thing possessed?

The moon's light. What does moon limit?

Model of parsing.

SENTENCE.—The president's message arrived.

ANALYZE.—Message, is the *subject*, modified by president's.
The President's message, is the *modified subject.*
Arrived, is the *predicate;* it affirms something of the subject.

PARSE.—Message is a common *noun* or *name.*

1. *Person*—third person, it denotes the thing spoken of.
2. *Number*—singular number; denotes but one.
3. *Gender*—neuter gender; neither male nor female.
4. *Case*—nominative case; denotes the subject.
5. *Construction*—the subject of arrived; Rule § 56.

President's is a common *noun*, of the third person singular, masculine, in the possessive case; its sign is *'s*; it denotes the owner and limits message.

*Examples for Parsing.**

Analyze and parse according to the model above.

Youth's joys depart.
Edward's courage failed.
Samuel's prospects brighten.
Joseph's father wept bitterly.
Washington's army suffered.
The ship's crew mutinied.
Bonaparte's soldiers conquered.

* The nouns only are to be parsed.

§ 59. THE OBJECTIVE CASE. See §§ 11, 52, 53.

1. The form of the objective case of nouns is like that of the nominative.

2. A noun in the objective case after a transitive verb, denotes that which is acted upon, or controlled by the agent, or doer.

EXAMPLE.

The sun warms the earth. Which noun denotes the doer? Which noun denotes the thing acted upon? Which is in the nominative case? Which in the objective?

What kind of a verb then is *warms*? Ans. A *transitive* verb.

3. The noun following a preposition is in the objective case.

§ 60. RULE.

The object of a transitive verb, is put in the objective case.

EXERCISE.

Write a nominative and an objective case for each of the following transitive verbs:

— strikes —	— consumes —
— reads —	— created —
— loves —	— studies —
— deceives —	— obeys —

Model of Analyzing and Parsing.

SENTENCE.—The workman's hammer drives the nail.

ANALYZE.—Hammer is the *subject* (spoken of.)
The workman's hammer, is the *modified subject.*
Drives is the *predicate, a transitive verb.*
Drives the nail, is the *modified predicate.*
Nail is the *object;* it denotes that which is acted upon.

PARSE.—*Hammer* is a common noun, of the third person, singular, neuter, and is the subject of drives. Rule § 56.

Workman's is a common noun, of the third person, singular, masculine, and limits hammer, which is the thing possessed. Rule § 58.

Nail is a common noun, of the third person, singular, neuter, and is put in the objective case. It is the object of the transitive verb *drives*. Rule § 60.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED.

Analyze and Parse.

The goldsmith's diamond cuts the glass.
The prince obeys the king's command.
Arnold's treason disgraced his name.
The eagle's talons seized the prey.
George studies Colburn's arithmetic.
The sun's rays disperse the darkness.
The youth's diligence deserves praise.

COMPOSITION.

Compose nine sentences, each of which shall contain a nominative, possessive, and an objective case, using the following nouns and verbs.

NOTE.—The article *an*, *a*, or *the*, may be used if necessary to make sense.

	Nouns.		*Verbs.*
James	Henry	Axe	cuts.
Grass	Knife	Tree	
Scythe	Wood	Farmer	
Rivers	Frost	Water	congeals.
Cold	Winter	Winter	
Winter	Ground	Cold	
Gun	Soldier	Indian	kills.
Hunter	Sword	Man	
Game	Enemy	Arrow	

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

Nouns are declined, that is, their cases are named as follows:

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. case	Man	men
Poss. case	Man's	men's
Objec. case	Man	men
Indep. case	Man	men.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. case	King	kings
Poss. case	King's	kings'
Objec. case	King	kings
Indep. case	King	kings.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Wife	wives
Poss.	Wife's	wives'
Objec.	Wife	wives
Indep.	Wife	wives.

REMARK.—Instead of the possessive case, the preposition with its object is often used; as, The light *of the sun*, instead of the *sun's* light. The sword *of the king*, instead of the *king's* sword.

§ 61. PRONOUNS.

Here review §§ 19 and 20.

What does the word pronoun signify?
What pronouns are always subjects, that is, in the nominative case? § 19.
What pronouns are objects, or in the objective case?

§ 62. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. *I, thou, you, he, she, it,* are *personal pronouns;* so called because they represent the speaker, the one spoken to, or that which is spoken of.

2. *I* is of the *first person;* it represents the one speaking.

3. *Thou* and *you* are of the *second person;* they represent the one spoken to.

4. *He, she, it,* are of the *third person;* they represent the one spoken of.

NOTE.—The pronoun *I* should always be written with a capital letter.

5. The *Personal pronouns* are declined, or their cases named as follows:

I. FIRST PERSON.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	I	we
Poss.	My	our
Obj.	Me	us
Indep.	I or me	we or us.

NOTE.—*Mine* and *thine* were formerly used before words beginning with a vowel, instead of *my* and *thy*. This usage is nearly obsolete.

Thou. SECOND PERSON.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Thou	ye or you
Poss.	Thy	your
Obj.	Thee	you, *rarely* ye
Indep.	Thou or thee	ye or you.

NOTE.—*Thou* is used chiefly in grave or formal style. *You* has always the plural form, but is used in place of nouns of either numbers.

He, She, It. THIRD PERSON.

		Singular.	
Nom.	He	She	It
Poss.	His	Her	Its
Obj.	Him	Her	It
Indep.	He or him	She or her	It

		Plural.	
Nom.	They	They	They
Poss.	Their	Their	Their
Obj.	Them	Them	Them
Indep.	They or them	They or them	They or them.

REMARKS.

1. The pronouns *hers, ours, yours, theirs,** are *possessive pronouns*, standing either in place of *her own, our own, your own, their own*, or in place of *her, our, your, their*, and a

Ours, yours, theirs, are always substitutes, used in the place of nouns, which are understood.—*Webster.*

noun; as, The book is *yours*, that is, your own. *Yours* of yesterday; that is, *your letter*, &c.

Mine and *thine* usually stand in place of *my own*, *thy own*, or of *my*, *thy*, and a noun.

2. The Possessive pronouns *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, and commonly *mine* and *thine*, are either in the nominative or objective case, and should be so regarded in parsing.*

MODEL OF ANALYZING AND PARSING.

SENTENCE. I blame you.

ANALYZE.—*I* is the subject. *Blame* is the predicate. *You* is the object.

PARSE.—*I* is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular number, nominative case, and is the subject of blame.

You is a personal pronoun, second person, of the plural form, objective case, and is the object of blame. Rule § 60.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

Parse the Pronouns only.

We compel them.	They hate me.
I hear your request.	You see me.
She fears him.	He fears my anger.
Thou rulest us.	It is his book.
You believe me.	They care for you.
Thine is the kingdom.	Yours is received.

EXERCISE.

Write a pronoun in the nominative case *before* each of the following verbs, and one in the objective case *after* them.

— love —	— believe —
— obeys —	— commands —
— teach —	— insult —

*See Webster's Imp. Grammar, in which this view is fully substantiated.

REMARK.—The subject of *Pronouns* is resumed after the exercises on the verb. Such as are used in the conjugation of the verb have been already explained.

§ 63. VERBS.

Here review § 10.

A verb is a part of speech by means of which something is asserted or expressed.

CLASSES.

1. Verbs are of two kinds; *transitive* and *intransitive*.

2. *Transitive* verbs are such as admit of an object.

This definition is applicable only to the *active* form, see § 73.

3. *Intransitive* verbs are such as do not admit of an object.

NOTE.—Transitive (Lat., *transitivus*, "having the power of passing,") implies that the action originating in that which the subject represents, terminates on the person or thing denoted by the object.

EXPLANATION.

I strike; can I strike any thing? the name of the thing I strike is the *object* of the verb.

What kind of a verb then is strike?

I see; can I see any thing? What kind of a verb is see?

I walk; can I walk any thing? can walk have any object? What kind of a verb is walk?

What kind of a verb is stand? Why?

What kind of a verb is loves? Why?

4. Verbs are varied on account of their subjects in two respects; viz: in *number* and *person*.

5. There are two NUMBERS; *singular* and *plural*; and three PERSONS;* *first*, *second* and *third*.

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* Person and number, applied to the verb, refer only to a form of the verb which usage has adopted to correspond to the person or number of the subject. Each person or number of the nominative is said to require a particular form, or to govern the verb in this respect.

§ 64. MODE.

1. Mode (from the Lat., MODUS, *manner*) means manner.

2. We speak or say things in different ways or *manners*.

(*a*) We say the flower blooms, the flower bloomed, the flower will bloom, the flower has bloomed; that is, we state a fact; or, the flower does not bloom; we deny a fact.

3. This stating, or declaring, or denying any thing, is called the INDICATIVE MODE, or manner of speaking.

NOTE.—*Indicative* means "showing," or "declaring."

(*b*) We say, the child *may learn, can learn, must learn, could learn, should learn*, &c.

4. This manner of speaking is called the POTENTIAL mode.

NOTE.—Potential (from the Lat., *potens*, "able," "having power,") signifies *having power* or *ability*.

(*c*) We say, *learn thou, obey ye, do, go.*

5. This manner of speaking is called the IMPERATIVE mode or manner.

NOTE.—Imperative signifies "commanding."

(*d*) We say, *to read, to have read.*

6. This manner of speaking is called the INFINITIVE mode.

NOTE.—Infinitive (from the Lat., *infinitus*, "unlimited,") signifies "in an unlimited manner."

(*e*) We say, *if it rains, suppose it rains*, lest *it should rain*, unless *it rains.*

7. This manner of speaking is called the SUBJUNCTIVE mode.

NOTE.—Subjunctive (Lat., *subjungo*, "to subjoin,") signifies subjoined to. This mode is called subjunctive, because the clause in which it occurs must be "subjoined to," or connected with some other clause to make complete sense; as, "If it rains," is an imperfect expression; but when subjoined to "I cannot work," the sense is complete.

ORAL EXERCISE.

1. How many *modes* of speaking have been described?
2. In what mode are the following expressions: "I love," "I have loved," "I will love," "I loved?" Why?
3. In what mode are the following expressions: "I may love," "I might love," "I can love," "I must love?" Why? Ans. They imply power, ability, necessity, or obligation.
4. In what mode are the following expressions: "See thou," "see," "see ye," "believe him," "obey your rulers?" Why?
5. In what mode are the following expressions: "To do," "to learn," "to speak," "to have seen?" Why?
6. In what mode are the following expressions: "If I love," "unless you hear?"
7. How many modes have been explained? What are they?

EXERCISE.

Put each of the following verbs in all the different modes.

Model.

Verb.—Make. INDICATIVE.—I make; I made, I have made, I shall make.

POTENTIAL.—I may or can make, I might make, I may have made.
SUBJUNCTIVE.—If I make, lest I make, unless I make.
IMPERATIVE.—Make, make thou, make ye, do make.
INFINITIVE.—To make, to have made.

VERBS.

Command.	Deny.	Praise.
Obey.	Forgive.	Blame.
Speak.	Turn.	Walk.

§ 65. DEFINITIONS.

1. Mode is a form of the verb to denote a particular *manner* of speaking or asserting any thing.

2. Verbs have FIVE MODES, the *Indicative*, the *Potential*, the *Subjunctive*, the *Imperative*, and the *Infinitive*.

3. *The Indicative* is used simply to indicate or declare any thing.

4. *The Potential* is used to express power, ability, necessity, or obligation.

NOTE.—Both the indicative and potential forms are used in asking questions.

5. *The Subjunctive* is used to express doubt or condition.

6. *The Imperative* is used to command, entreat and exhort.

7. *The Infinitive* is used to express an action or a state in an unlimited manner.

§ 66. SIGNS OF THE MODES.

1. The simple form of the verb is generally used in the *Indicative* mode; as, I love; but sometimes *do* is prefixed for the sake of emphasis; as, I do love.

2. The same is true of the *imperative* mode; as *Come* thou, *do* come.

3. *May*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, when used before another verb, are signs of the Potential mode; as, He may sing; he should sing.

4. The word *to* before the verb is the sign of the Infinitive; as, I learn *to study*; I love *to read*.

5. *If*, *though*, *except*, *unless*, *whether*, *lest*, *suppose*, *admit*, *grant*, or any word denoting doubt or condition is the sign of the Subjunctive; as, If I sleep; suppose we go.

EXERCISE.

*Sentences to be Analyzed and Parsed.**

Mention the *mode* and the kind of the verbs, or answer the questions, what kind of verb, *transitive* or *intransitive*? In what *mode*? Why?

The sun[1] warms[2] the earth.[3]
James should love his[4] book.
I will walk in the field. See § 31.
George must not[5] kill the bird.
If sinners entice thee, consent† thou[6] not.
Love justice. Speak the truth.

§ 67. TENSE.

1. Tense signifies "time." (French, *temps*, or Latin, *tempus*, "time.")

2. We speak of persons or things as acting, and of occurrences as *taking place*, in different times.

(*a*) We say "the flowers bloom," in the present time; (*b*) "the flower bloomed," in past time; (*c*) "the flower will bloom," in future time.

ORAL EXERCISE.

How many kinds of time have been mentioned?
Put the verb *love* in the present, past and future time.
Put the verb *to study* in the present, past and future time or tense.
I walk; is the verb walk in the present or past time or tense?
I walked, in what time? What is the future time or tense of the verb walk?

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[1] Sun is the subject. [2] Warms is the predicate. [3] Earth is the object. [4] His is in the possessive case. [5] The adverb not, separates must, the sign, from the verb kill. [6] Thou is in the nominative case, the subject of the imperative *consent*.

* The nouns, verbs and personal pronouns are to be parsed; the other words may be omitted for the present.

† The subject of a verb in the Imperative mode, is seldom expressed; when it is expressed it follows the verb.

EXERCISE.

Use the following verbs to express something in the present, past and future time. The pronouns *I*, *we* and *they*, may be used.

Strike.	Hear.	Look.
Learn.	See.	Hides.
Talk.	Work.	Believe.

3. Besides the three general divisions of time mentioned, there are some subordinate divisions.

(*b*) We say "the flower had bloomed," that is, before some other occurrence had taken place; as, Before I came, the flower had bloomed. This is a division of past time.

(*c*) We say, "the flowers have bloomed," i. e. at a time before the present, but it is not certain whether it bloomed a moment ago, or at a period considerably distant.

This is also a division of *past time.*

(*d*) We say, "the flower will have bloomed," that is, before some other occurrence will take place; as, The flower *will have bloomed* before we shall return. This is a division of *future time.*

ORAL EXERCISE.

I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I shall or will love, I shall have loved.

In how many different times is the verb *love* used?

Put the verb *play* in the different times or tenses; also the verbs *hate, destroy, praise* and *blame.*

How many divisions of time have been made? Ans. *Six.*

How many divisions of *past* time has the verb? Ans. *Three*, called the *Imperfect* tense; as, I loved; the *Perfect* tense; as, I have loved, and the *Pluperfect* tense; as, I had loved.

How many divisions of *future* time has the verb? Ans. *Two*, the *First Future* tense; as, I shall or will love; and the *Second Future* tense; as, I shall have loved.

§ 68. DEFINITIONS.

1. Tense is a form of the verb to denote the time in which any thing exists, or is taking place.

2. Verbs have *six tenses*. The *Present*, the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, the *Pluperfect*, the *First Future*, and the *Second Future*.

3. The *Present tense* denotes what takes place in the present time; and is also employed in stating what is habitual, and what is always true; as, *The sun rises*, or *is rising*.

4. The *Imperfect** denotes what took place, or was taking place, in past time; as, *I recited*, or *was reciting*.

NOTE 1.—This is sometimes called the *Past* tense.

5. The *Perfect*† denotes what has taken place, or what has been taking place up to the present time; as, *I have read*, or *have been reading*.

NOTE 2.—This tense is sometimes called the *Prior*‡ *present*.

6. The *Pluperfect*§ denotes what had taken place, or what had been taking place, before some other past action; as, The news *had arrived* before the packet reached the port.

NOTE 3.—This tense is sometimes called the Prior-past; since it denotes that something took place prior to, or before some other past event.

7. The *First Future* denotes what will take place; as, *It will rain*.

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* The term *Imperfect*, "unfinished," is strictly applicable only to the Progressive form, viz: I was reciting. The Indefinite form, viz: I recited, denotes an action *finished*, in past time, and might properly be called the preterit tense.

† *Perfect*, signifies "finished." ‡ *Prior*, signifies "before."

§ Pluperfect (Lat., plus, *more*, perfectus, *finished*,) signifies "more, than the perfect."

8. The *Second Future* denotes what will take place before some future action or event; as, Before I shall see you, the criminal *will have been executed.*

This tense is sometimes called the Future Perfect, and Prior Future.

§ 69. SIGNS OF THE TENSES.

TENSES.	SIGNS.
Present.	The simple form of the verb, and sometimes *do*, *am*, *art*, *is* or *are*.
Imperfect,	The simple form, and sometimes *did*, *was*, *wast* or *were*.
Perfect,	have, hast or has.
Pluperfect,	had or hadst.
First Future,	shall or will.
Second Future,	shall have, or will have.

EXAMPLES OF THE TENSES.

NOTE.—Each tense has two forms, which may be called the Indefinite and Progressive forms. The Indefinite denotes no precise time; the Progressive denotes an action as progressing or going on at some particular time.

PRESENT TENSE.

Indefinite Form.	*Progressive Form.*
I ride, (that is, at any time.)	I am riding, (that is, at the present moment.)
I love, (no precise time denoted.)	I am loving, (that is now.)
I write, (a customary act.)	I am writing, (that is at the present moment.)

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Indefinite Form.	*Progressive Form.*
I rode, (no precise time denoted.)	I was riding, (that is, yesterday.)
I loved, (when? not certain.)	I was loving, (when? at a certain time.)
I wrote, (that is, was accustomed to write.)	I was writing, (an hour ago.)

PERFECT TENSE.

Indefinite Form.	*Progressive Form.*
I have read, (time not specified.)	I have been reading, (that is, just now.)
I have written.	I have been writing.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Indefinite Form.	*Progressive Form*
I had read.	I had been reading.
I had written.	I had been writing.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

Indefinite Form.	*Progressive Form.*
I shall or will read.	I shall or will be reading.
I shall or will write.	I shall or will be writing.

SECOND FUTURE.

Indefinite Form.	*Progressive Form.*
I shall have read.	I shall have been reading.
I shall have written.	I shall have been writing.

EXERCISE.

Write the Indefinite and Progressive forms of the following verbs, in each of the tenses.

Hear. Read. Study. Command. Obey.

ORAL EXERCISE.

1. In what tense are, "I have loved," "you have loved," "he has loved?" Why? What does this tense denote? What is the Progressive form of this tense? What is the sign of this tense?

2. In what tense are, "I had loved," "you had loved," "they had loved?" What does this tense denote? What is the sign of this tense? What is the Progressive form of this tense?

3. In what tense are, "I loved," "they loved," "you loved?" What does this tense denote? What is the Progressive form of this tense?

4. "I shall or will love," "he shall or will love," "you shall or will love." In what tense are these expressions? Define this tense. Give its Progressive form.

5. "I shall have loved;" tense? sign? what does it denote? What is the Progressive form?

6. How many tenses have been described? Define each. Give an example of each, in both forms.

7. How many modes have been described? Define each. Give an example of each.

REMARKS.

1. The Indicative mode has six tenses.

2. The Potential mode has four tenses, viz: the present, imperfect, perfect and pluperfect.

The tenses of the Potential mode are:

Present—I may, can or must love.
Imperfect—I might, could, would or should love.
Perfect—I may, or can, or must have loved.
Pluperfect—I might, could, would or should have loved.

3. The Infinitive mode has two tenses, viz:

The *Present*—To love.
The *Perfect*—To have loved.

4. The Subjunctive mode has all the tenses of the Indicative; as, *If I love*, present; *If I have loved*, perfect, &c.

§ 70. AUXILIARY VERBS.

1. Auxiliary means "helping," or "helper."

2. A few verbs are used in forming the modes or tenses of other verbs, and are called *auxiliaries*, or helping verbs.

3. Most of these have only two forms, as;

Can,	could.
May,	might.
Will,*	would.
Shall,	should.

* *Will* is sometimes used as a principal verb, and in that case it takes an auxiliary, and may have the regular forms of the modes and tenses; as, I will. I willed. I have willed, I may will, &c.

4. The verbs *am* or *be*, *have* and *do*, have all the modes and tenses of other verbs.

ORAL EXERCISE.

"I have loved." Which is the auxiliary? Which is the principal verb?

"I shall love." Which is the auxiliary or helping verb?

"I shall have loved." Point out the helping verbs. What is the mode and tense?

"I may or can have loved." Point out the principal verb. Which are the helping verbs? What mode is denoted by may or can?

"I might, *could*, would or should love." Which is the principal verb? Which are helping verbs? What mode is denoted by the forms *might could, would* and *should*?

"I do believe." Which is the helping verb? What tense?

"I did believe." Which is the helping verb? What tense?

§ 71. PARTICIPLES.

1. Participles are derived from verbs; but they modify the meaning of nouns to which they belong.

2. Verbs have three participles; a *present*, a *perfect*, and a *compound* participle.

3. A *Present** participle ends in *ing*, and implies continuance of action or being; as, Loving, having, standing, being.

4. A *Perfect*, or *past* participle denotes action or being completed; as, Loved, been, stood.

5. A compound participle, formed of the *helping* verb *have*, and the *perfect participle* of the principal verb, denotes action or being, completed, before some other action or event; as, Having loved; having been.

Present, *loving*. Perfect, *loved*.

Compound, *having loved*.

---

* The participle in *ing*, denotes continuance of *being*, or *action* as present in reference to the time denoted by the verb of the sentence in which it stands.

EXERCISE.

Write the participles to the following verbs:

Model.

Verb, *Love.*

Present, loving, *perfect*, loved, *compound*, having loved.

Receive	Obey
Believe	Command
Hate	Study.

§ 72. REGULAR VERBS.

1. Verbs which form their *Imperfect tense* and *Perfect participle* by adding *ed*, or *d*,* to the present, are called regular verbs.

Love, is a regular verb. Why? Ans. Its *Imperfect tense*, and *Perfect participle* are formed by adding *d* to the present; as, Present, *I love.* Imp., *I loved.*

2. All verbs which do not form their Imperfect tense and perfect participle by adding *ed* or *d* to the present, are called *irregular verbs;* as, Present, *I come.* Imp., *I came.*

§ 73. *Active and Passive Forms of Transitive Verbs.*†

What is a transitive verb? Is strike a transitive verb? Why? Is love a transitive verb? Why? Is there any difference of meaning, in the following expressions?

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* When the present ends in *e*, *d* only is added to form the Imperfect tense and Perfect participle of regular verbs.

† The terms *active* and *passive* are not very properly applied to these two forms of the verb. They belong more properly to the subjects of the verbs. In the active form, the subject of the verb is active, or denotes the doer of the action. In the passive form, the subject of the verb is passive, or denotes the object of the action. See examples already given.

1. *I love my sister.* 2. *My sister is loved by me.*

The first expression is called the "Active form." The second the "Passive form."

1. All transitive verbs have an active and a passive form.

2. In the *active* form, the subject denotes the actor, or agent.

3. In the *passive* form, the subject of the verb denotes the object of the action; and the noun or pronoun which denotes the agent is put in the objective case after the preposition *by*.

EXAMPLES.

Active.	*Passive.*
Charles reads the book.	The book is read by Charles.
The child obeys his parents.	His parents are obeyed by the child.
Edward strikes his brother.	His brother is struck by Edward.

[NOTE.—In these sentences the object of the verb in the active form becomes the subject in the passive, and the meaning is not changed.]

I love my sister.	I am loved by my sister.
I strike you.	I am struck by you.
Edward strikes his brother.	Edward is struck by his brother.

[NOTE.—In these sentences, the subject of the verb is the same in the passive form as in the active, but the meaning is materially different.]

EXERCISE.

Write the following verbs in the passive form.

(1) Make the objects of the verbs in the active form, the subjects of the verbs in the passive form.

Subjects.	*Verbs.*	*Objects.*
The sun	warms	the earth.
The hunter	kills	the fox.
The farmer	tills	the ground.

(2) Let the subjects be the same in both forms.

Subjects.	*Verbs.*	*Objects.*
The hunter	kills	the tiger.
I	dislike	Charles.

§ 74. CONJUGATION.

1. Conjugation is the inflection of a verb in the different modes, tenses, numbers and persons.

Inflection of the verb love in the Indicative mode present tense.

Singular.

I love, first person, singular, because the pronoun *I* is of the first person, singular.
Thou lovest, second person, singular, because *thou* is of the second person, singular.
He, she or *it loves*, third person, singular, because *he* and *she* and *it* are of the third person, singular.

Plural.

We love, first person, plural, because *we* is of the first person, plural.
Ye or *you love*, second person, plural, because *ye* and *you* are of the second person plural.
They love, third person, plural, because the nominative *they* is of the third person, plural.

REMARK.

The pronoun YOU represents nouns either of the singular or plural number, but it requires the verb to be in the plural form.

2. THE PRINCIPAL PARTS of a verb are, the *Present Indicative*, the *Imperfect Indicative*, and the *Perfect Participle*.

§ 75. CONJUGATION OF REGULAR VERBS.

VERB, LOVE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, love; *Imperfect*, loved; *Perfect Participle*, loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present tense,	to love.
Perfect tense,	to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present,	loving.
Perfect,	loved.
Compound,	having loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDEFINITE FORM.

Singular.

1st *Person,*	I love.
2d	Thou lovest.
3d	He* loves.

Plural.

1. We love.
2. Ye, or you love.
3. They love.

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

Singular.

1st *Person,*	I am loving.
2d	Thou art loving.
3d	He is loving.

Plural.

1. We are loving.
2. Ye, or you are loving.
3. They are loving.

Write the verbs *move, prove,* and *believe,* in the different persons and numbers of the Present tense.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I loved, or did love.
2. Thou lovedst, or didst love.
3. He loved, or did love.

Plural.

1. We loved.
2. Ye, or you loved.
3. They loved.

Singular.

1. I was loving.
2. Thou wast loving.
3. He was loving.

Plural.

1. We were loving.
2. Ye, or you were loving.
3. They were loving.

Write the verbs *move, prove, believe* in the different persons and numbers of the Imperfect tense. Is *thou did love* proper? Why not?

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* A noun or some other pronoun of the third person, might be used instead of *he* in the conjugation of the verbs; as, *He, she, it,* or *man,* &c., loves.

PERFECT TENSE.

Sign—*Have.*

INDEFINITE FORM.	PROGRESSIVE FORM.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I have loved.	1. I have been loving.
2. Thou hast loved.	2. Thou hast been loving.
3. He has loved.	3. He has been loving.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We have loved.	1. We have been loving.
2. Ye or you have loved.	2. Ye or you have been loving.
3. They have loved.	3. They have been loving.

Write the verbs *move, prove, believe* in the different persons and numbers of the Perfect tense. Correct the following. You hadst believed; the horses has moved.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Sign—*Had.*

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I had loved.	1. I had been loving.
2. Thou hadst loved.	2. Thou hadst been loving.
3. He had loved.	3. He had been loving.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We had loved.	1. We had been loving.
2. Ye or you had loved.	2. Ye or you had been loving.
3. They had loved.	3. They had been loving.

Write the verbs *hear, receive, arrive,* in the different persons and numbers of the Pluperfect tense. What is the *sign* of this tense?

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

Signs—*Shall* or *Will.*

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I shall or will love.	1. I shall or will be loving.
2. Thou shalt or wilt love.	2. Thou shalt or wilt be loving.
3. He shall or will love.	3. He shall or will be loving.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We shall or will love.	1. We shall or will be loving.
2. Ye or you shall or will love.	2. Ye or you shall or will be loving.
3. They shall or will love.	3. They shall or will be loving.

Write the verbs *obey, command* and *trust,* in the different persons and numbers of the First Future tense. Are these verbs *regular* or *irregular*? Why?

SECOND FUTURE.

Sign—*Shall have.*

INDEFINITE FORM.	PROGRESSIVE FORM.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I shall have loved.	1. I shall have been loving.
2. Thou wilt have loved.	2. Thou wilt have been loving.
3. He shall or will have loved.	3. He shall or will have been loving.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We shall have loved.	1. We shall have been loving.
2. Ye or you will have loved.	2. Ye or you will have been loving.
3. They shall or will have loved.	3. They shall or will have been loving.

Write the verbs *hear, believe,* and *look,* in the different persons and numbers of the Second Future tense. How many tenses in the Indicative mode? Define each. Tell the different numbers and persons in each.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

NOTE.—The present tense of the potential mode is used to denote either *present* or *future* time.

Signs—*May, can, must.*

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I may, can, or must love.	1. I may, can, or must be loving.
2. Thou mayst, canst, or must love.	2. Thou mayst, canst, or must be loving.
3. He may, can, or must love.	3. He may, can, or must be loving.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We may, can, or must love.	1. We may, can, or must be loving.
2. Ye, or you may, can, or must love.	2. Ye or you may, can, or must be loving.
3. They may, can or must love.	3. They may, can, or must be loving.

Write the verbs *create, destroy* and *deceive,* in the different persons and numbers of the Present tense, of the Potential mode. Are these verbs regular? Why?

IMPERFECT TENSE.*

NOTE.—The Imperfect tense of the Potential mode is used to denote either *past, present* or *future* time.

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* The terms Present and Imperfect are applicable, only in part, to the two first tenses of the Potential mode. *May, can,* and *must* when they are the signs of the present tense, refer either to *future* or to *present* time; and *might, could, would, should,* when they are the signs of the Imperfect tense, more commonly refer to present and future time, than to past.

The terms Present and Imperfect are retained in this work for the sake of uniformity with most English Grammars in use. Neither of the tense forms can be fully explained by a single term.

Signs—*Might, could, would* or *should.*

INDEFINITE FORM.	PROGRESSIVE FORM.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I might, could, would or should love.	1. I might, &c., be loving.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst love.	2. Thou mightst, &c., be loving.
3. He might, could, would or should love.	3. He might, &c., be loving.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1 We might, could, would or should love.	1. We might, &c., be loving.
2. Ye or you might, could, would or should love.	2. Ye or you might, &c., be loving.
3. They might, could, would or should love.	3. They might, &c., be loving.

Write the verbs, *defend, pretend,* and *convey,* in the different persons and numbers of the Imperfect tense of the Potential mode.

PERFECT TENSE.

Sign—*May have.*

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I may or can have loved.	1. I may or can have been loving.
2. Thou mayst or canst have loved.	2. Thou mayst or canst have been loving
3. He may or can have loved.	3. He may or can have been loving.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We may or can have loved.	1. We may or can have been loving.
2. Ye or you may or can have loved.	2. Ye or you may or can have been loving
3. They may or can have loved.	3. They may or can have been loving.

Write the verbs *employ, prepare* and *owe* in the different persons and numbers in the Perfect tense of the Potential mode. What is the sign of this tense?

PLUPERFECT.

Signs—*Might, could, would, should* or *must have.*

Singular.

1. I might, could, would or should have loved.*
2. { Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst have loved.
   { You might, could, would or should have loved.
3. He might, could, would or should have loved.

Plural.

1. We might, could, would or should have loved.
2. Ye or you might, could, would or should have loved.
3. They might, could, would or should have loved.

Write the verbs *employ, prepare* and *owe* in the different persons and numbers of all the tenses of the Potential mode. Tell the signs of all the tenses of the Indicative mode. Tell the signs of all the tenses of the Potential mode.

*For the Progressive form, place "been loving" after the auxiliaries.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

NOTE.—A verb is not varied in the Imperative mode on account of *person*, or *number*. It has for its *subject* or *nominative*, a pronoun of the *second* person, singular or plural; and this pronoun is generally omitted. A verb in the Imperative mode is often preceded by *do* to render it more emphatic.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Love.	Love.
Love thou.	Love ye or you.
Do love	Do love.
Do thou love.	Do ye or you love.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Annex *if*, *though*, *unless*, *suppose*, *admit*, *grant*, *allow*, or any word implying a *condition*, to each tense of the Indicative and Potential modes to form the Subjunctive; as,

PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. If I love.	1. If I loved.
2. If thou lovest or love.*	2. If thou lovedst; / If you loved.
3. If he loves or love.	3. If he loved.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. If we love.	1. If we loved.
2. If ye or you love.	2. If ye or you loved.
3. If they love.	3. If they loved.

In like manner the other tenses may be declined.

Oral Exercises on the Verb TO LOVE.

Name the tenses of the Indicative mode.

Decline (that is, give the forms of the different persons and numbers of) the Present tense of the Indicative mode, Indefinite form; Progressive form.

Decline the verb love in the Imperfect tense in both forms.

What auxiliary is used as the sign of the Perfect tense?

Decline the Perfect tense in both forms.

What auxiliary is used in the Pluperfect tense? Decline the verb love in this tense.

Decline the verb love in the Future and Second Future tenses.

What words are signs of the Subjunctive mode?

How many tenses in the Subjunctive?

Name the auxiliaries in each tense.

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* Formerly it was customary to omit the terminations in the second and third persons of the Present tense of the Subjunctive mode. But now the terminations are generally retained except when the ellipsis of *shall* or *should* is implied; as, If he obey, i. e., if he *shall* or *should* obey.

How many persons has the Imperative mode? Ans. As one person always *commands, exhorts* or *entreats* another, the Imperative mode has only the second person.*

Name the Infinitive mode, and Participles of the verb love, and then begin with the present tense, Indicative mode, and name the first person, singular, of each tense in the Indicative and Potential modes. This is called a SYNOPSIS, which means a "general view."

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB LOVE.

Let the following synopsis be thoroughly committed to memory:

PRINCIPAL PARTS—*love, loved, loved.* INFINITIVE MODE—*To love, to have loved.* PARTICIPLES—*Loving, loved, having loved.*

INDICATIVE MODE.	POTENTIAL MODE.
Pres. I love or am loving.	*Pres.* I may or can love or be loving.
Imp. I loved or was loving.	*Imp.* I might, could, &c., love or be loving
Perf. I have loved or been loving.	*Perf.* I may or can have loved or been loving.
Plup. I had loved or been loving.	*Plup.* I might, &c., have loved or been loving.
Fut. I shall or will love or be loving.	
S. Fut. I shall or will have loved, or have been loving.	

IMPERATIVE MODE.

{ Love, love thou, or do love.
{ Love you or ye, do you love.

REMARK.—All regular verbs are conjugated like the verb *love.*

Model for Parsing the Verb.

SENTENCE. The keepers chain the lion.

ANALYZE. *The keepers* is the subject. *Chain* is the predicate, modified or limited by its object, *the lion.*

PARSE. *Keepers* is a common noun of the third person, plural number, masculine gender, nominative case, and is the subject of the verb *chain.* Rule § 60.

Chain is a verb; it asserts or declares something of keepers; *transitive*—it takes an object, viz: lion; it shows what the keepers do to the lion; in the *third person* plural, because *keepers* is of the third person and plural number.

It agrees with its nominative *keepers*, according to the

§ 76. RULE.

A verb agrees with its nominative case in *number* and *person.*

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* A few instances of the use of the Imperative in the first and third persons will be enumerated in another place.

NOTE.—The rule means if the nominative case is plural, the verb must be plural, and if the nominative case is of the first, or second, or third person. the verb must correspond. The names of all persons and things, when spoken of, are of the third person.

EXERCISE.

(*a*) Mention the class, number and person, and agreement of the verbs.

The sun shines.	The oxen draw the plough.
The rain falls.	The wind drives the waves.
I grieve.	Bees produce honey.
The guilty tremble.	The branch bends to the earth.
The lamp burns.	The fire consumes the wood.

(*b*) Write on the board or slate a *transitive* and an *intransitive* verb after each of the following subjects.

Model.

They —

Subject, They drive the flock, *transitive* ; they run, *intransitive*.

SUBJECTS.

The horses —	He —	I -
The sun —	You —	James —
Trees —	They —	The earth -
Thou —	Men —	Birds —

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED BY RULE, § 76.

Give the reason in each instance why the example is wrong.

I goeth ; I goes : I loveth ; I walketh ; I is ; I art.
Thou loves ; thou write ; thou hate ; thou trembles.
He, she or it, desire ; he commend ; she dress ; it rain.
We finds ; we sees the clouds ; we dreadeth the cold.
Ye or you studies ; you ploweth the field ; you runs fast.
They playeth ; they strikes the ball ; they sells corn.
The teacher smileth ; the woman spinneth ; the children cries.

A soft answer turn away wrath. The pupils in this school, loves study. Evil communications corrupts good manners. The smiles of a hypocrite hides his wickedness. These boxes of butter weighs thirty pounds. A mixture of salt and vinegar make a good bath. Our folks goes to his meeting. My pupils generally makes very good figures. Adjectives belongs to nouns. The articles an and the refers to nouns.

(*c*) Let all the parts of the following verbs be written out on paper, and be presented to the teacher for examination.

Believe	Command	Learn
Receive	Esteem	Study
Obey	Declare	Guard.

EXAMPLES FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Be particular to mention the mode and tense of the verbs, and give the reason why the verbs are regular.

The general commanded the forces.
The soldiers obey the commander.
The sun appearing,* dispelled the darkness.
The youth have learned to study.
He has declared the truth.
The benefactor will receive his reward.
His father, having received the intelligence, departed.
He might learn, if he would study.
The soldiers were guarding the tent.
He can command, but he will not obey.
He can never deny the fact.
The ship will sail, if the weather allows.
The time has arrived.
Guard your tongue; govern your passions.

COMPOSITION.

(*a*) Fill each blank with several verbs in the Imperfect tense, of the Indicative mode;

His father — a farm.
The mother — her son.

(*b*) in the Future tense, of the same mode;

Indolence — poverty.
Vice — the heart.

(*c*) in the Perfect and Pluperfect tenses, of the same mode;

The time —
The minister — a discourse.

(*d*) In the Potential mode, Present tense.

My brother — to-morrow.
Children — their parents.

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* Participles modify nouns, and are commonly placed after them in a sentence; as, The sun appearing; the participle *appearing*, modifies sun.

(*e*) In the Imperative mode;

— your parents. — the truth.
— the Scriptures. — God.

§ 77. IRREGULAR VERBS.

Verbs which do not form their Imperfect tense and Perfect participle by adding *ed* or *d* to the present, are called irregular verbs.

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF SOME IRREGULAR VERBS.

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Am or be	was	been
Have	had	had
Go	went	gone
See	saw	seen
Do	did	done.

CONJUGATION OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

VERB, BE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.—Am. Was. Been.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present. To be.
Perfect. To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being.
Perfect. Been.
Compound. Having been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.	PERFECT.
Singular.	*Singular.*	*Singular.*
1. I am.	1. I was.	1. I have been.
2. Thou art.	2. Thou wast.	2. Thou hast been.
3. He is.	3. He was.	3. He has been.

Plural.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
1. We are or be.	1. We were.	1. We have been.
2. Ye or you are or be.	2. Ye or you were.	2. Ye or you have been
3. They are or be.	3. They were.	3. They have been.

PLUPERFECT.	FIRST FUTURE.	SECOND FUTURE.
Singular.	*Singular.*	*Singular.*
1. I had been.	1. I shall or will be.	1. I shall have been.
2. Thou hadst been.	2. Thou shalt or wilt be.	2. Thou wilt have been.
3. He had been.	3. He shall or will be.	3. He shall or will have been.
Plural.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
1. We had been.	1. We shall or will be.	1. We shall have been.
2. Ye or you had been.	2. Ye or you shall or will be	2. Ye or you will have been.
3. They had been.	3. They shall or will be.	3. They shall or will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I may, can or must be.	1. I might, could, would or should be.
2. Thou mayst, canst or must be.	2. Thou mightst, couldst wouldst or shouldst be.
3. He may, can or must be.	3. He might, could, would, or should be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We may, can or must be.	1. We might, could, would or should be.
2. Ye or you may, can or must be.	2. Ye or you might, could, would or should be.
3. They may, can or must be.	3. They might, could, would or should be.

PERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I may, can or must have been.	1. I might, could, would, should or must have been.
2. Thou mayst, canst or must have been.	2. Thou mightst, &c., have been.
3. He may, can or must have been.	3. He might, &c., have been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We may, can or must have been.	1. We might, &c., have been.
2. Ye or you may, can or must have been.	2. Ye or you might &c., have been.
3. They may, can or must have been.	3. They might, &c., have been.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Be, be thou, or do thou be.	Be, be ye, or you.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Conjugated like the Indicative and Potential, by prefixing the signs *if*, &c.

NOTE. 1. The following is the elliptical form of the Sub. Pres. of the verb be.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I be.	1. If we be.
2. If thou be.	2. If ye or you be.
3. If he be.	3. If they be.

CONDITIONAL FORM.

NOTE.—The conditional form of the Subjunctive mode generally implies a negative; as, *If it were* possible they would deceive you.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were.	1. If we were.
2. If thou wert.	2. If ye or you were.
3. If he were.	3. If they were.

SYNOPSIS.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being. *Perfect*, Been. *Compound*, Having Been.

INFINITIVE.

Present, To Be. *Perfect*, To have been

INDICATIVE	POTENTIAL.
Present. I am.	I may, can or must be.
Imperfect. I was.	I might, could, &c., be.
Perfect. I have been.	I may, can or must have been.
Pluperfect. I had been.	I might, could, &c., have been.
Future. I shall or will be.	
Second Future. I shall have been.	

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present. If I am (common form.)
Present. If I be (elliptical form.)
Perfect. If I have been.
Imperfect. If I were, (conditional form.)
Pluperfect. If I had been.
First Future. If I shall be.
Second Future. If I shall have been.
Imperative. Be *or* Be thou or you.

EXERCISE.

Write the Perfect tense of the Indicative and Potential modes of the verb BE. Write the Pluperfect tense of both modes. Write the Present tense of both modes. Write the Imperfect tense of both modes. Write the First Future tense of the Indicative mode. Write the Second Future tense.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The verb Be, when used alone denotes simply existence.

2. In all its forms it requires some word or combination of words after it to assert any thing besides existence

3. The words *be, am, was, is, &c.*, may be followed by an adjective, a noun, a verb in the Infinitive mode, a participle, or by a preposition with its object.

4. The verb *be* with a present participle constitutes the Progressive form of the tense which the verb is in; as, "I am writing," "he is writing," "he was writing," &c.

5. The verb *be* with the perfect participle of a *transitive verb*, constitutes the Passive form of that verb; as, I am loved. I have been loved. I shall or will be loved.

6. The perfect participle of an *intransitive* verb is in a few instances joined to the verb *be;* as, The sun is risen, that is, *has* risen The winter is gone, that is, *has* gone. A few expressions of this kind are occasionally met with.

But analogy, and the general practice of good writers are opposed to the use of intransitive verbs in the *passive* form.

REMARK.

The verb *Be* joined with a noun, adjective, or participle, constitutes a predicate; as, The youth is diligent; *is diligent*, is the predicate.

EXERCISE FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

§ 79. RULE.

Adjectives belong to nouns which they qualify or define.

NOTE.—The adjective is often placed after the verb. As the fruit is good. Good is an adjective and belongs to fruit, which it describes.

Model.

SENTENCE. True friendship is everlasting.

ANALYZE.—*Friendship* is the subject, modified by true. *True Friendship* is the modified subject. *Is everlasting* is the predicate, formed of the verb *is* and the adjective *everlasting*.

PARSE. *Friendship* is a common noun, singular, nominative, the subject of *is*. Rule § 76. *True* and *everlasting* belong to friendship. *Is* is an *irregular intransitive* verb; *principal parts*, am, was, been. Indicative mode, Present tense, and agrees with its nominative case, *friendship*. Rule.

Analyze and Parse.

The spring is delightful.
The bees are industrious.
The ant is provident.
Good men will be happy.
The winter has been severe.
Scholars should be industrious.
Lafayette was a brave general.
Washington was a wise statesman.
I have been young; now I am old.
Milton was a great poet.
The music was charming.
Thou art righteous.
If you are virtuous, you will be happy

The irregular Verbs HAVE, DO, AND GO.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perfect Part.*
Have	had	had.
Do	did	done.
Go	went	gone.

CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present.	To have.	To do.	To go.
Perfect.	To have had.*	To have done.	To have gone.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.	Having.	Doing.	Going.
Perfect.	Had.	Done.	Gone.
Comp.	Having had.	Having done.	Having gone.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.†

Singular.	*Singular.*	*Singular.*
1. I have.	1. I do.	1. I go.
2. Thou hast.	2. Thou doest or dost.	2. Thou goest.
3. He has, or had.	3. He does or doeth.	3. He goes or goeth.

* The Perfect Infinitive is formed of the perfect participle and the auxiliary *have* preceded by *to*.

† The progressive form can be easily given, by joining the present participle to the verb *be* or *am*; as, I am having, I am doing. I am going. I was having, &c.

Plural.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
1. We have.	1. We do.	1. We go.
2. Ye or you have.	2. Ye or you do.	2. Ye or you go.
3. They have.	3. They do.	3. They go.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*	*Singular.*
1. I had.	1. I did.	1. I went or did go.
2. Thou hadst.	2. Thou didst.	2. Thou wentest or didst go.
3. He had.	3. He did.	3. He went or did go.

Plural.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
1. We had.	1. We did.	1. We went.
2. Ye or you had.	2. Ye or you did.	2. Ye or you went.
3. They had.	3. They did.	3. They went.

PERFECT TENSE.

Sign—*Have.*

Singular.	*Singular.*	*Singular.*
1. I have had.	1. I have done.	1. I have gone.
2. Thou hast had.	2. Thou hast done.	2. Thou hast gone.
3. He has had.	3. He has done.	3. He has gone.

Plural.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
1. We have had.	1. We have done.	1. We have gone.
2. Ye or you have had.	2. Ye or you have done.	2. Ye or you have gone.
3. They have had.	3. They have done.	3. They have gone.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Sign—*Had.*

Singular.	*Singular.*	*Singular.*
1. I had had.	1. I had done.	1. I had gone.
2. Thou hadst had.	2. Thou hadst done.	2. Thou hadst gone.
3. He had had.	3. He had done.	3. He had gone.

Plural.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
1. We had had.	1. We had done.	1. We had gone.
2. Ye or you had had.	2. Ye or you had done.	2. Ye or you had gone
3. They had had.	3. They had done.	3. They had gone.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

Signs.—*Shall* or *Will.*

Singular.	*Singular.*	*Singular.*
1. I shall have.	1. I shall do.	1. I shall go.
2. Thou shalt have.	2. Thou shalt do.	2. Thou shalt go.
3. He shall have.	3. He shall do.	3. He shall go.

Plural.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
1. We shall have.	1. We shall do.	1. We shall go.
2 Ye or you shall have.	2. Ye or you shall do.	2. Ye or you shall go.
3. They shall have.	3. They shall do.	3. They shall go.

SECOND FUTURE.

Signs—*Shall* or *Will have.*

Singular.	*Singular.*	*Singular.*
1. I shall have had.	1. I shall have done.	1. I shall have gone.
2. Thou wilt have had.	2 Thou wilt have done,	2. Thou wilt have gone.
3. He shall or will have had.	3. He shall &c., have done.	3. He shall &c., have gone

Plural.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
1. We shall have had.	1. We shall have done.	1. We shall have gone.
2. Ye or you will have had.	2. Ye or you will have done.	2. Ye or you will have gone.
3. They shall or will have had.	3. They shall or will have done.	3. They shal or will have gone

POTENTIAL MODE

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs—*May, can,* or *must.*

Singular.

1. I may, can or must, have, do, or go.
2. Thou mayst or canst, have, do, or go.
3. He may or can, have, do, or go.

Plural.

1. We may, can or must, have, do, or go.
2. Ye or you may, &c., have, do, or go.
3. They may, &c., have, do, or go.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Signs—*Might, could, would* or *should.*

Singular.

1. I might, could, would, or should, have, do, or go.
2. Thou mightst &c., have, do, or go.
3. He might, &c., have, do, or go

Plural.

1. We might, &c., have, do, or go.
2. Ye or you &c., have, do, or go.
3 They might, &c., have, do, or go.

PERFECT TENSE.

Signs—*May, can* or *must have.*

Singular.

1. I may or can, have had, done or gone.
2. Thou mayst, &c., have had, done or gone.
3. He may, &c., have had, done or gone.

Plural.

1. We may, &c., have had, done, or gone.
2. Ye or you may, &c., have had, done, or gone.
3. They may, &c., have had, done, or gone.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Signs—*Might, could, would, should,* or *must have.*

Singular.

1. I might, &c., have had, done, or gone.
2. Thou mightst, &c., have had, done, or gone.
3. He might, &c., have had, done, or gone

Plural.

1. We might, &c., have had, done, or gone.
2. Ye or you might, &c., have had, done, or gone.
3. They might, &c., have had, done, or gone.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

1. Have.	1. Do.	1. Go.
2. Have thou or you.	2. Do thou or you.	2. Go thou or you.

Plural.

1. Have.	1. Do.	1. Go.
2. Have ye or you.	2. Do ye or you.	2. Go ye or you.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The Subjunctive mode is conjugated by prefixing the signs *if, though,* &c. to the different tenses of the Indicative.

ORAL EXERCISE.

Give the first person singular of the verbs above, in each tense of the Indicative mode; also, in each tense of the Potential mode. Give the principal parts of each verb. How is the Perfect tense formed? *Ans.* By the auxiliary *have,* and the Perfect Participle. How is the Pluperfect tense formed? How

are the Future tenses formed? How may the Perfect, Pluperfect and Future tenses be known?

In what tense is have had? have done? have gone? Why?

In what tense is had gone? had had? had done? In what mode is may have? Why? Might have had? must have? could have had? In what mode is do thou go? let us go? Why? What are the participles of the verbs have, do, go?

What kind of a verb is *have*? Ans. An auxiliary or a helping verb. Why so called?

In what tenses is the auxiliary *have* used with other verbs in their conjugation?

Is *do* ever a helping verb? *Ans.* *Do* is often used in the *Present*, and *did* in the Imperfect tense, with other verbs, for the sake of emphasis.

Exercise on irregular Verbs.

Let the principal parts of the following irregular verbs be committed to memory.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perfect Participle.*
See,	saw,	seen.
Strike,	struck,	struck.
Know,	knew,	known.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Break,	broke,	broken, and broke.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Seek,	sought,	sought.

EXAMPLES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

The learner should be careful to mention the mode, tense, number and person of the verb, and tell *why* it is irregular.

I see the pleasant sun.
Charles struck the animal.
The traveller smote the robber.
I have known the man.
Ye knew your duty.
The child grew in knowledge.
The tidings will break her heart.
Charles has broken his promise.
Trouble will surely come.
Buy the truth, and sell it not.
Keep thy heart with diligence.
I have sought thee with my whole heart.

§ 79. FORMATION OF TENSES.

I. INDICATIVE MODE.

NOTE.—The directions below have reference to the first person singular of each tense.

1. The first person singular of the *Present* tense, is the root of the verb; as, I command.

2. The *Imperfect* tense is formed from the present in regular verbs, by adding *ed* to the Present, or *d* when the *root* or *present* ends in *e*. In irregular verbs, the Imperfect can be learned from Table No. 3, near the end of the book.

3. The *Perfect* tense is formed by placing the auxiliary *have*, before the perfect participle; as, I *have* loved. I *have* gone.

4. The *Pluperfect* tense is formed by placing *had* before the perfect participle.

5. The *First Future* tense is formed by placing *shall* or *will* before the *present*, or root; as, I *shall* or *will* command.

6. The *Second Future* tense is formed by placing *shall have*, or *will have*, before the perfect participle; as, I *shall have* gone, he *will have* gone.

II. THE POTENTIAL, INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLES.

1. The *Present* tense is formed by placing *may, can* or *must*, before the root or present; as, I *may* or *can* go.

2. The *Imperfect* tense is formed by placing *might, could, would* or *should*, before the root or present; as, I *might* go.

3. The *Perfect* tense is formed by placing *may have, can have*, or *must have*, before the perfect participle; as, I *may, can* or *must have* read.

4. The *Pluperfect* tense is formed by placing *might, could, would* or *should* have, before the perfect participle; as, I might, &c., have loved.

5. The *Present* tense of the Infinitive mode has *to* before the root; as, *To love*.

6. The *Perfect* tense of the Infinitive mode has *to have*, before the perfect participle; as, To have read.

7. The *Present participle* ends in *ing*.

8. The *Perfect participle* of regular verbs ends in *ed*.

9. The *Perfect participle* of irregular verbs may be found in Table No. 3, near the end of the book.

10. The *Compound participle* is formed of the present participle *having*, and a perfect participle.

11. The tenses of the *Subjunctive mode* are formed like the tenses of the Indicative and Potential, with the signs, *if, unless, admit, grant, &c.*, prefixed.

12. The *Imperative* mode is the simple form or root of the verb; and its subject or nominative is generally omitted; as, *Go, do, see*; thou or you is omitted.

EXERCISE.

(a) In this exercise the learner may be required to show why the verb is regular or irregular, and give the mode, tense, person, number, formation, &c.

NOTE.—For the Principal Parts of the irregular verbs, he can consult Table No. 3, near the end of the book.

I will read. You will sing. They will go. They went. We see. They have seen. You had believed. He will have known. He must obey. They must have forgotten. He should stay. They might have gone. They will work. He may write. They have been. Study. Learn. Obey. You will return. She arrived. Having learned. Having gone. Standing. To have. To see. To have known. Suppose we read. If he obeys. Though he speaks. The letter being written. Failed. Finished. Having been commanded.

(See Table No. 3, near the end of the book.)

Write the Imperfect Indicative of the verbs.

See.	Do.	Look.
Come.	Arrive.	Hold.
Make.	Leave.	Grind.
Know.	Give.	Teach.
Go.	Bestow.	Lie.
Mow.	Take.	Find.

Write the Perfect participles of the same verbs. Write the Perfect tense of the same verbs. The Pluperfect. The Future.

Write all the tenses of the same verbs in the Potential mode.

§ 80. PARTICIPLES.

Analysis and Parsing.

RULES.

1. Participles belong to nouns, which they limit or explain.

2. Present and Compound participles of transitive verbs in the active form, govern the objective case.

Model.

SENTENCE. The past participle signifies action finished.

ANALYZE. Participle is the *subject*, modified by past. The past participle is the *modified subject*. Signifies is the *predicate*. Signifies action finished, *the modified predicate*. Finished, *the participle*, modifies action.

Parse the Participle. Finished is a perfect participle of the regular verb *finish* and belongs to *action*. *Rule.*

ANALYZE AND PARSE.

He had a poniard *concealed* under* his coat.
However† *fatigued*, he always† returned in* spirits.
Having rested, we descended the hill.
After *having performed* the ceremony, he returned.
Jesus *knowing* their thoughts, rebuked them.
I saw him *laboring* in* the field.
The Most High dwelleth not in temples *made* with hands.
I see the heavens *opened*, and‡ the Son of* man *standing* on the right hand of* God.

THE INFINITIVE MODE.

§ 81. RULE.

The Infinitive mode follows a *verb*, *noun*, or *adjective*.

EXERCISES FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Model.

SENTENCE. The scholar loves to study.

ANALYZE. *Scholar* is the subject. *Loves* is the predicate, modified or limited by the verb *to study* in the Infinitive.

PARSE. *Scholar* is a common noun, of the third person, singular, nominative case, and the subject of loves.

Loves is a verb; it asserts something of its subject; in the *Indicative mode*, Present tense, third person, singular, and agrees with scholar. RULE.

To study is a verb, in the *Infinitive mode*, and follows the verb loves. RULE § 68.

Analyze and Parse.

Birds love to sing.
The youth tries to learn.
The man has a desire to hear.
Charles strives to improve.
Learn to obey. He may hope to succeed.
It is kind[1] to forbear.
It is pleasant[2] to hear the sweet music of birds.[3]

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* Preposition. † Adverb. ‡ Conjunction.

[1] *Is kind*, is the predicate; kind is an adjective.
[2] *Is pleasant*, is the predicate; pleasant is an adjective.
[3] *Of birds*, is the adjunct of music.

§ 82. PASSIVE FORM OF TRANSITIVE VERBS.

Rule of Formation. Annex the Perfect participle to each tense of the verb *be* in all its different modes, numbers and persons; as, Thou *art* loved, I *was* loved, &c.

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB LOVE IN THE PASSIVE FORM.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being loved.
Compound. Having been loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.		POTENTIAL MODE.
Present.	I am *loved.*	I may, can or must be *loved.*
Imperfect.	I was *loved.*	I might, &c., be *loved.*
Perfect.	I have been *loved.*	I may,can or must have been *loved.*
Pluperfect.	I had been *loved.*	I might, &c., have been *loved.*

F. Future. I shall or will be *loved.*
S. Future. I shall have been *loved.*

IMPERATIVE.

Be loved, or be thou or you loved.

INFINITIVE.

Present. To be loved. *Perfect.* To have been loved.

EXERCISE.

For the Board or Slate.

Verbs to be used.

Strike, *Perfect Participle* struck.
Drive, " " driven.
Make, " " made.

According to the Rule of forming the Passive—write the *Perfect* tense of the *Passive* form of *strike*, in all the persons and numbers; also the *Pluperfect* tense of the *Passive* form, in the Indicative and Potential modes.

Write the *Imperfect* tense of the *Passive* form of "strike" "drive" "make."

Write the *Future* tense of the *Passive* form of the same verbs.

REMARK.

Other words often separate* the parts of the passive form; as, The subject *will*, I hope, *be* well *considered*. *Will be considered*, is the passive form. How are the parts separated?

Tautology *should* always *be avoided*. How are the parts separated?

COMPOSITION.

Fill the blanks with Passive forms of transitive verbs.

Model.

The sea —— by the wind.
The sea is agitated by the wind.

The earth† — by the sun.
The eyes — by looking at the sun.
His limbs — by the cold.
The book should — diligently.
The Creator — by all men.
I — that the plan will succeed.

FOR PARSING.

Analyze and Parse the following.

He was persuaded to yield.
He was visited by his friend.
Mercy was offered to him.
The report was generally believed.

§ 83. THE INTERROGATIVE FORM.

1. When a question is asked, the principal verb or its auxiliary, usually stands before the subject or nominative case.

2. The auxiliary *do* is commonly employed in the present tense, when a question is asked, and *did* in the imperfect.

3. When a question is asked in the passive form, the parts of the verb *be*, stand before the nominative case in the *Present* and *Imperfect tenses* of the *Indicative*. In other tenses the auxiliary stands first.

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* The auxiliaries of the active form are often separated from the principal verb by some intervening word or words; as, I *have* recently *heard* the news.

† Each of the blanks may be filled with several verbs, and with different tenses of the same verb.

EXAMPLES.

Do you understand?* *Present tense*, 2d person.
Did you understand? *Imperfect tense*, 2d person.
Does he understand? *Present tense*, 3d person.
Did they obey? What tense, number and person?
Will he go? What tense, number and person?
Are you persuaded? *Present Interrogative Passive.*
Was he persuaded? What form and tense?
Will he be persuaded? What form and tense?
Have you heard? What tense and person?

Conjugate the verb *love* in the Interrogative form; as, Do I love? dost thou love? do you love? does he love? &c. Did I love? didst thou love? did he love? &c.

EXAMPLES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Model.

SENTENCE. Have you received the letter?

ANALYZE. You *is the subject*, 2d person. Have received, *is the predicate.* Have received the letter, *is the modified predicate.*

PARSE. *You* is a Personal Pronoun, 2d person, of the plural form, the subject of have received. *Rule.*

Have received, is a regular transitive verb, Indicative mode, Perfect tense, 2d person, singular, and agrees with *you*, its subject. *Rule.*
Letter is the object of have received.

Analyze and Parse.

Have you read the book?
Did you hear the voice?
Shall we walk in the garden?
Can he recover his health?
Will he meet his friend?
Can love be bought with gold?
Can gold gain friendship?

§ 84. NEGATIVE FORM.

1. A verb is conjugated in the negative form, by employing the adverbs *not* or *never*.

EXAMPLES.

I do *not* believe. I see *not*.
I shall *not* remain. I can *not* go.

* Interrogations in grave or emphatic style frequently omit the auxiliary *do*; as, "Believest thou this?" "Know ye not?"

§ 85. EMPHATIC FORM.

In earnest or emphatic language, the auxiliary verb *do*, is frequently employed; as,

I *do* love.	I *do* know.
I *did* love.	I *did* know.

§ 86. DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. A defective verb is one which wants some of the modes or tenses.

2. The auxiliary verbs can, shall, may, have two forms, *present* and *past*; as, *Can, could, &c.*

3. *Ought* is defective, and is used only in one form. "Had ought or could ought" is improper.

4. *Quoth* is defective, and usually stands before its nominative; as, "Quoth he." *Beware* is defective, and is used chiefly in the Imperative and Infinitive modes; but occasionally in the *Future* Indicative and the *Imperfect* Potential.

§ 87 OBSERVATIONS ON THE VERBS.

I. GRAVE OR FORMAL STYLE.

(*a*) The Scriptures, addresses to the Deity, and sacred songs differ from common style, in using the pronouns *thou, ye* and *thee* for *you, thy* and *thine* for *your*, and a termination of the second and third person, singular, of verbs, in *st* and *th*;* as, "Thou hearest," "believest thou?" "Who *hath* believed?" "*Thine* is the power" "*Ye* are the salt of the earth." "Seek ye."

(*b*) The same usage is countenanced in grave and impassioned poetry.

II. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

(*a*) The sign of the Subjunctive is often omitted; as, "Were I to go," "had he listened to my advice," for "if I were, if he had."

(*b*) *Were* is sometimes used for "would be or could be; as, "If it *were* possible, they would deceive the very elect," "It *were* easy," that is, it *would be* easy.

(*c*) *Had* is sometimes used for "if I might have, or if I could have;" as, O had I the wings of a dove.

Had rather is improperly used for "would rather."

(*d*) The auxiliaries *might, could, would* or *should*, are used in the Subjunc-

* The regular termination in *s* is also used in this style; as, He sees or seeth

tive mode in a very indefinite sense, in respect to time. "I would go if I could," is an expression which may be used in reference either to present or future time, but it cannot be used in reference to past time. "I might go to-day or to-morrow;" this expression may refer to present or future time. The Present and Imperfect tenses of the Potential form of the Subjunctive mode, may refer either to present or future time.*

III. IMPERATIVE MODE.

(*a*) The Imperative has strictly but one person, viz: the one addressed or the second person. A form of the 1st and 3d persons, however, is given in several English Grammars, as follows: 1st person, "let me love, let us love," 3d person, "let him love, let them love." In these forms, *let* is a transitive verb in the Imperative mode, and governs the pronoun in the objective case.

(*b*) The first and third persons of pronouns are sometimes the subject of the Imperative; as, "Be my *tongue* mute." "Hallowed be thy *name*." "Well, march *we* on—meet *we* the medicine of the sickly weal; and with him pour *we*, in our country's purge, each drop of us."—*Shakspeare.*

Such expressions may be regarded as elliptical; still they would lose much of their force, if other words were supplied.

The pronoun *we* with the Imperative, is perhaps, peculiar to poetry. But nouns and pronouns of the third person, occur both in prose and in poetry; as, Be *it* enacted, i. e., let it be enacted; be my *tongue* mute, i. e., let my tongue be mute.

TENSES.

(*a*) The Present tense of the verb is sometimes employed by historical writers, in describ ng events that are past, but which seem present to the mind of the narrator who is transported back in imagination to the scene of action.

(*b*) The Present tense often refers to what is future, when preceded by the words, *when, as soon as, after*, and the like; as, When the boat arrives I shall learn the news.

(*c*) None of the tenses are absolutely restricted to the time indicated by their

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* In the subjunctive mode, there is a peculiarity in the tenses which should be noticed. When I say, *if it raine*, it is understood that I am *uncertain* of the fact, at the time of speaking. But when I say, "*If it rained*, we should be obliged to seek shelter," it is not understood that I am uncertain of the fact: on the contrary, it is understood that I am certain, it *does not rain* at the time of speaking. Or if I say, "*if it did not rain*, I would take a walk." I convey the idea that it *does* rain at the moment of speaking. This form of our tenses in the subjunctive mode has never been the subject of much notice, nor ever received its due explanation and arrangement. For this hypothetical verb is actually a present tense, or at least indefinite.—it certainly does not belong to past time. It is further to be remarked, that a negative sentence always implies an affirmative—"if it did not rain," implies that it *does* rain. On the contrary, an affirmative sentence implies a negative—"if it *did* rain," implies that it does *not*.

In the past time, a similar distinction exists; for "if it rained yesterday," denotes uncertainty in the speaker's mind—but "if it had *not* rained yesterday," implies a certainty, that it *did* rain.—*Webster.*

names. The Imperfect tense denotes *completed*, as well as unfinished action in past time; as, I rode, I was riding. It is still less precise when applied to the Subjunctive mode. The conditional particles, *if, though, &c.*, preceding a verb in the Present or Imperfect tense, denote either *present* or *future* contingency.

The auxiliaries *shall* and *will* are considered the signs of the Future tense. But *shall* often denotes present obligation, and *will*, present purpose or determination. They differ also in this respect; *will*, in the first person intimates resolution or promising; in the second person, only foretells; as, I will reward the good; he will be sorry for his act.

Shall, on the contrary, in the first person simply foretells; in the second and third persons it is used to command, to promise, or to express the determination of the speaker; as, You *shall* go; they *shall* inherit the earth.

The reverse is generally true in interrogative sentences; as, *Shall* I go? i. e, do you command me to go? Will he come? i. e., does he intend to come.

IV. PARTICIPLES.

The Present Participle is often used passively; as, "The ship is building," the number "is increasing." *Being built*, and *being increased*, are expressions unauthorized by correct usage. See Part III. under Participles.*

GENERAL REVIEW.

1. Into what two general classes are verbs divided.
2. Give examples of transitive verbs,—of intransitive.
3. Explain the difference between transitive and intransitive verbs.
4. Explain the difference between the *Active* and *Passive* forms of a *transitive* verb.
5. Name the modes. What does each mode denote? Examples of each. The signs.
6. Name the tenses. What does each tense denote? Examples of each. The signs.
7. What are the auxiliaries? Explain their use.
8. Explain the passive form of transitive verbs by examples.
9. Conjugate the verb *love*. Give the synopsis of the same verb.
10. How are regular verbs distinguished from irregular? Give examples of each.
11. Give the synopsis of the passive form of the verb *love*.
12. Conjugate the verb *be*; the verb *go*; the verb *do*.
13. Give examples of the emphatic form of a verb; of the interrogative form: of the negative form.

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* *The grammar is printing. The brass is forging.* This is in my opinion a vicious expression, probably corrupted from a phrase more pure, but now somewhat obsolete; the book is *a* printing; the brass is *a* forging; *a* being properly *at*. and *printing* and *forging* verbal nouns signifying action.—*Johnson.*

§ 88. THE ADJECTIVE.

Review § 24, Part I.

Define the adjective. § 25, or § 43

CLASSES.

Adjectives may be divided into two classes, *Descriptive* and *Definitive.*

§ 89. DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

1. Descriptive adjectives are words which *qualify* or describe the meaning of nouns or pronouns.

2. Such as are derived from proper nouns are called proper adjectives; as, *American*, *English.*

3. Adjectives derived from verbs and having the form of participles are called *participial* adjectives; as, *Enduring* friendship, a *bereaved* parent.

EXAMPLES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

§ 90. RULE.

Adjectives belong to nouns which they qualify or define; as, A *good* man, a *large* dwelling.

Model.

SENTENCE. Shady trees surround the dwelling.
ANALYZE. Trees *is the subject;* surround, the *predicate.*
Shady trees *the modified subject.* See § 14.
Surround the dwelling, *the modified predicate.*
PARSE. *Shady,* is a descriptive adjective; it describes or qualifies trees.
Rule. The other words are parsed according to models previously given.

Analyze and Parse.

The fragrant flowers perfume the air.
The morning sun is bright and clear.
Dutiful children obey their parents.
A wise son maketh a glad father.
The diligent scholar treasures up knowledge.

The winter was severe.—Bees are industrious.
History is interesting.—The fruit is delicious.
He is disinterested.—Time is short.

NOTE.—Adjectives are often placed after the verb *be*, and with it form the predicate; as, The scholar is diligent; *is diligent*, is the predicate; *diligent* is the adjective, and belongs to *scholar*, which it describes.

REMARK.

Adjectives are often used as nouns, especially in the plural; as, The *good*, the *profligate*; and nouns are sometimes used as adjectives; as. A *gold* watch, a *snow* storm.

COMPOSITION.

Fill the blanks with descriptive adjectives.

A — heart makes a — countenance.
—— politeness consists in — behavior to all.
The — song of the nightingale cheered the — night.
The old man was — and —
The youth was — and — —

§ 91. DEFINITIVES.

Definitive adjectives are such as *define* or *limit* the meaning of nouns and pronouns.

This class includes Articles, Numerals and the Pronominal adjectives.

§ 92. ARTICLES.

An or *a*, and *the*, are called Articles. They are placed before nouns which they define, and may be properly termed Definitive adjectives.

(*a*) *An* stands before words beginning with a *vowel sound*.

(*b*) *A* stands before words beginning with a *consonant sound*; as, A *bird*, a *use*, a *yew-tree*.

NOTE. 1. *A* stands before words beginning with vowels which can be sounded only with the assistance of the consonants *y* or *w*; as *A* [*y*] *union*, *a eulogy*.

NOTE. 2. *An* is used before words beginning with *h* and accented on the

second syllable; as, *An historical poem, an heroic act;* and before words beginning with a silent *h;* as, *An honor.*

NOTE. 3. *An* or *a* denotes a class or an individual; as, *An* eagle is a bird of prey; meaning *any eagle.* I saw an eagle yesterday; meaning a *particular eagle.*

NOTE. 4. *An* or *a* is often used in a wide and indefinite sense, and on that account is commonly styled the *indefinite* article; as, Give me *a* book, such *a* one, many *a* time.

NOTE. 5. *The* denotes a class or an individual; as, The elephant is a large and strong animal; meaning any elephant, or the whole class of elephants. Did you see the elephant which passed to-day? meaning a particular elephant.

NOTE. 6. As *the* often points out particular things, it is styled the *definite* article.

EXERCISE.

Let the following expressions be corrected; and let the reason be given in each instance for the correction made.

The clock is a hour and an half too fast. A honest man sold me a ox. A Indian is a hard master. Such an one can be a upright judge. A early pear will keep but an short time. A old coat is an useless garment. A idle man stole an horse from a honest one. A ounce of prevention is worth an hundred pounds of cure.

§ 93. The *Numerals* are such as denote number; as, *One, two, first, second.*

§ 94. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

1. Those definitives which are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as pronouns, may be called *Pronominal adjectives.*

2. They are *this, that, these, those,* (demonstratives;) *each, either, neither,* (distributives;) *some, any, one, all, such,* (indefinites;) *other, another, none, much, many, few, both, same, several, former, latter.*

3. *One* and *other* are thus declined.

		Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	One,	Other,	Others
Poss.	One's,	Other's,	Others'
Obj.	One.	Other.	Others.

NOTE.—In parsing, *an* or *a* and *the* may be called *articles,* and the definitives *this, that,* &c., may be called *adjectives* when they stand before nouns; and *pronouns* when they stand alone.

EXAMPLES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

"This is true charity." *This*, is the subject; *is true charity*, is the modified predicate. *This*, stands in place of a noun and is therefore a *pronoun*, nominative case, the subject of is.

This day will be remembered.
That event has been recorded.
*One** is apt to love *one's* self.
Some were wise, *others* were foolish.
He pleases *some;* he *disgusts* others.
Much labor has been bestowed.
Many hours have been wasted.
A *few* days will determine his destiny.
Others may boast; I will be silent.
All must die; *none* can escape.
A thousand soldiers were encamped.

COMPOSITION.

1. Connect two descriptive adjectives with each of the following nouns.

Model.

— — days.	— — glass.	— — sea.
Bleak cold days.	*Clear smooth* glass.	*Dark blue* sea.

NOUNS.

Sky, cloud, sun, tempest, mountain, lake, wood, river, valley, island, shore, cliff, beach, sand, waves, forests, fields, cloud, eye, gardens, roses.

2. Connect three descriptive adjectives with each of the following nouns

Model.

A — — — pebble.	A — — — Frenchman.
A *white, smooth, round* pebble.	A *tall, handsome, active* Frenchman.

NOUNS.

1. Cat, dog, wolf, fox, horse, butterfly.
2. American, Indian, Englishman.
3. Rose, tree, poppy, lily, flower.
4. Serpent, viper, snake, frog, lizard.

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* The noun after the Pronominal adjectives used alone, can be easily supplied; as, *Some*, that is, some persons. Others however, in the plural, is strictly a pronoun, as it cannot be used before a noun either expressed or understood.

§ 95. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. The quality in one object is often spoken of in comparison with the same quality in itself, or in some other object.

EXAMPLES.

(*a*) The same quality in three different objects may be compared as follows:

Iron is *hard*; hardness is a quality in iron.

Steel is *harder* than iron; hardness is a quality in steel, but this quality exists in a higher degree in steel than in iron.

Diamond is the *hardest* of the three; hardness is a quality in diamond, but this quality exists in a higher degree than it does either in iron or in steel.

(*b*) The same quality in three different persons may be compared as follows:

A *wise* man; a *wiser* man than he; the *wisest* man of the three, or of all.

A *good* man; a *better* man than he; the *best* man of the three, or of all.

A *great* man; a *greater* man than he; the *greatest* man of the three, or of all,

(*c*) Different degrees of a quality in the same object may be expressed as follows:

The boy was *mischievous* at home, *more mischievous* at school, but the *most mischievous* at church.

DEFINITIONS.

1. Comparison is the variation of an adjective to denote the same quality in different degrees.

2. There are three principal degrees of comparison, called the *positive*, the *comparative* and the *superlative*.

3. The *positive* denotes the simple quality, without specifying the degree of it; as, Mild, great.

4. The *comparative* denotes a higher state of the same quality than the positive; as, Milder, greater.

5. The *superlative* denotes a higher or lower state of the same quality than that expressed by the *comparative*; as, Mildest, greatest.

§ 96. REGULAR COMPARISON.

1. Adjectives of one syllable are commonly compared

by annexing to the positive, *er* or *r*, for the *comparative*, and *est*, or *st*, for the *superlative*.

NOTE.—*R* and *st* are added when the positive ends in *e*.

EXAMPLES.

Pos.	*Com.*	*Sup.*	*Pos.*	*Com.*	*Sup.*
Tall,	taller,	tallest.	Late,	later,	latest or last.
Wide,	wider,	widest.	Great,	greater,	greatest.

NOTE.—Adjectives of two syllables ending in *y* or silent *e* are compared in the same way; the *y* being substituted for *i*; as, Happy, happier, happiest.

2. Adjectives of more than one syllable are generally compared by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*; as, Skilful, *more* skilful, *most* skilful; learned, *more* or *less* learned, *most* or *least* learned.

3. An *imperfect degree* is expressed by the ending *ish*; as, Blue-*ish*, dark-*ish*.

§ 97. IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

The following adjectives are irregular in their comparison.

Pos.	*Com.*	*Sup.*	*Pos.*	*Com.*	*Sup.*
Good,	better,	best.	Fore,	former,	foremost or first.
Bad, or ill,	worse,	worst.	Old,*	elder,	eldest.
Little,	less,	least.	Late,	later,	latest or last.
Much,	more,	most.	Far,	farther,	farthest.
Many,	more,	most.	Near,	nearer,	nearest or next:

4. Some words add *most* to form the superlative; as, Hind, hinder-*most*; in, inner, inner-*most*; up, upper, upper-*most*, &c.

NOTE.—Some adjectives do not admit of being compared; as, *Round, square, spherical, &c.*

REMARK.—Various degrees of comparison are expressed by means of *adverbs, adjuncts*, and by *emphasis*; as, *Very* sick, *exceedingly* great, *in the highest degree* censurable.

EXERCISE.

Give the comparative and superlative.

High.	Grateful.	Good.	Ill.
Low.	Unmindful.	Little.	Generous.

* Thus compared only when applied to persons. The regular form *old, older, oldest*, is applied either to persons or things.

Small.	Cheerful.	Happy.	Penurious.
Great.	Attractive.	Lofty.	Extravagant.

DIRECTION. The word *more* should never be prefixed to the comparative degree of an adjective; nor the word *most* to the superlative degree. Double comparatives and double superlatives should be carefully avoided.

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED.

Who was a more wiser man than Solomon. It was the beautifulest sight I ever saw. A more honester man you cannot find. My master is more kinder than my mistress. Summer is the delightfulest season of the year. The pine is more tall than the cedar. The good are more happy than the bad. Socrates was much more wiser than Alcibiades. Have you seen a rounder ball than this? The book is more square than the block.

REVIEW.

1. What is the meaning of the word adjective?
2. Into what two general classes may adjectives be divided?
3. What are descriptive adjectives? Proper adjectives? Participial adjectives? Give examples of each.
4. What are definitive adjectives? What does this class include.
5. Name the articles. What is the difference between *an* and *a*?
6. Why are the articles called definite and indefinite?
7. What are pronominal adjectives? Name them.
8. Define comparison. How many degrees?
9. What does the positive denote? The comparative? The superlative?

§ 98. PRONOUNS.

What does the word pronoun signify? §§ 19, 20.

CLASSES.

Pronouns may be divided into two classes, Personal and Relative.

The personal pronouns have already been explained. See §§ 61, 62

§ 99. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A relative pronoun is one that refers to a preceding noun or pronoun, which is called the *antecedent*.

NOTE.—Antecedent signifies "going before, or preceding."

REMARK.—Sometimes, especially in poetry, the natural order of the words is changed, and the relative refers to a noun or pronoun following it.

EXAMPLES.

The man *who* is happy; *who* is the relative; it refers to man; *man* is the antecedent.

The sight *which* I saw; *which* is the relative; *sight* is the antecedent.

The people *who* are assembled; point out the *relative*, the *antecedent*.

WHO, WHICH, THAT.

2. *Who*, *which* and *that* are the relative pronouns.

3. *Who* refers to persons, or to things personified.

4. *Which* refers to animals and things. In ancient writings, *which* sometimes refers to persons.

5. *That* refers to persons, animals and things.

DECLENSION OF THE RELATIVES.

Singular and Plural.

Nom.	Who	Which	That
Poss.	Whose	Whose	——
Obj.	Whom	Which	That

The relatives *who* and *which*, when used in asking questions, are called *interrogatives*.

NOTE.—The noun to which the interrogative refers is found in the answer to the question; as, Who did this? Ans. James, i. e., it was James who, &c.

EXERCISE.

Fill the blanks with relatives.

NOTE.—The objective case of the relative generally stands *before* the transitive verb which governs it, and *after* the preposition.

The people — we saw.
The king — commanded, was obeyed.
The birds — fly in the air.
The man — has no music in himself.
The events — are passing.

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED.

For *direction* see § 99, 2. 3. 4. 5.

The bird whom I caught has escaped. The friend which I loved has gone. There were some cities who aspired for liberty. The rose whom we saw has faded. The son in which his hopes were placed was lost at sea.

FOR PARSING.*

§ 100. RULE.

The relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in *gender*, *number* and *person*.

REMARKS.

1. The relative in the different cases is parsed like other pronouns.
2. The objective case of the relative usually stands before the transitive verb that governs it, but after a preposition.

Parse the relatives.

The master, *who* taught us.
The trees, *which* were planted.
He, *who* preserves me, to *whom*† I owe my being, *whose* I am, and *whom*‡ I serve, is eternal.
The city, *which* Romulus built is called Rome.
The boy, *who* reads. The animal *which* runs.
The letter, *which* I have received.
My friend, *whom* I esteem.
The rose, *which* we saw is fading.
The tree, *that* we passed has withered.
Whose book is this, *which* you gave me?

§ 101. COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

1. The word *self* is often added to the personal pronouns *him*, *her*, *my*, *thy*, *it*, to express emphasis; as, Himself, itself, &c.

* As the relative is a connective, the sentences in which it occurs cannot be properly analyzed until compound sentences have been explained.

† *Whom* is governed by the preposition *to*.

‡ *Whom* is in the objective case and governed by serve.

Singular.

	First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.
Nom. and Obj.	My*self.*	Thy*self.*	It*self.*

Plural.

Nom. and Obj.	Our*selves.*	Your*selves.*	Them*selves.*

NOTE.—*Self*, (plural selves) is used alone, as a noun. When prefixed to other words it makes a part of a compound adjective; as, *Self-complacent, self-taught.*

WHAT.

2. *What* is called a compound pronoun, because it has the meaning of *that which*, *these which*, or *those which.**

EXAMPLES.

I heard *what* you said; that is *those things which* you said.
I know *what* will please you; that is, *the* things *which* will please you.

Model of parsing WHAT.

SENTENCE. I have heard what has been alleged.
What is a compound relative, and is used in the sense of *that which.*
That is in the objective case, and is the object of heard. *Which* is in the nominative case, and is the subject of has been alleged.

Parse *what* in the following sentences.

I have done *what* you commanded.
You will know *what* I have said.
What you have said is true.
They are informed of *what* you did on the last night.
They know *what* is right.

REMARK 1. *What* is sometimes an adjective.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

In *what* character he appeared is unknown.
At *what* time he will arrive is uncertain.
It is not material *what* names are assigned them.

REMARK 2. *What*, when used in asking questions, is called an *interrogative.*

* A noun can always be supplied after the relatives *what* and *which.* They are therefore strictly adjectives.

NOTE.—When used as an interrogative, a noun is expressed or understood after *what*.

EXAMPLES.

What [thing] will you do? *What* [deed] have I done?
What consequence will follow the adoption of this measure?
What news have you heard to-day?

NOTE.—Other uses of what, will be explained in Part III.

3. Whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever, whichever, whichsoever.

(*a*) These compound words are often used in the sense of two pronouns, and are parsed like *what*.

(*b*) *Whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever* and *whichsoever*, are often adjectives and agree with the noun following.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

Whoever dreads punishment, deserves it.

Whoever has the sense of *he who;* he is in the *nominative case*,—the subject of deserves; who is also in the *nominative*, and is the subject of dreads.

Whatever [*that which*] is, is right.

Whatever link you strike, tenth or ten thousandth, breaks the chain alike.

REMARK.

This, *that*, *these*, *those*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *any*, *one*, *all*, *such*, *other*, *another*, *none*, *much*, *many*, *more*, *most*, *both*, *same*, *several*, *former*, *latter*, may be called pronouns, when the nouns to which they properly belong are omitted.

COMPOSITION.

Supply relatives and other words necessary to make complete sentences.

ANTECEDENTS.*

Model.

The book — — — — is instructive.
The book *which I have read* is instructive.

The man — — —. The youth — — —
The sun — — —. Birds — — —
— green banks — — —. — the husbandman ——

* The antecedents may be in any case, or place in the sentence, which best suits the learner's choice; as, The man who is virtuous will be respected, or, all will respect the man who is upright in his dealings. The relative should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent.

§ 102. ADVERBS.

Here review § 29. 1, 2, 3, and § 30.

Mention the office of different kinds of adverbs.

Define the adverb. § 30. What does adverb signify? § 29.

CLASSES.

1. Adverbs may be divided into various classes; as,

Adverbs of manner;
Adverbs of time;
Adverbs of place;
Adverbs of assent, denial, or doubt;
Adverbs of comparison and quality;
Adverbs of interrogation;
Adverbs of quantity, &c.

2. Most adverbs are used to express the same meaning, as might be expressed by a combination of other words; as, He acted *wisely*, i.e., he acted *with wisdom;* he stopped here, i.e., in this place; *when* shall I see you? i.e., *at what time* shall I see you? he visits me *often*, i.e., *many times*. *Whence* art thou? i.e., from what place; Where are you? i.e., in what place.

§ 103. COMPARISON.

1. Most adverbs which end in *ly* are compared by more and most, or less and least; as, *Justly*, (pos.) *more justly*, (comp.) *most justly*, (sup.); *wisely*, (pos.) *less wisely*, (comp.) *least wisely*, (sup.)

2. A few adverbs add *er* for the comparative, and *est* for the superlative; as, *Sooner*, *soonest*, *oftener*, *oftenest*.

A few are compared irregularly; as,

Little, less, least.
Much, more most.
Badly or ill, worse, worst.
Far, farther, farthest.
Forth, further, furthest.

NOTE.—*Forth* is an adverb. *Further* and *furthest*, are used either as adjectives or adverbs

REMARK.

A large proportion of the adverbs may be known by their answering to the questions *how? when? where? how much?* as, The waves dash;—how? Ans. *Violently.* The adverb *violently*, answers the question, and modifies *dash.* He will return;—when? Ans. *Immediately.*

§ 104. RULE.

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

EXAMPLES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Model.

SENTENCE. *Time* flies swiftly.

ANALYZE. *Time* is the subject. *Flies* is the predicate, modified by *swiftly* *Flies swiftly* is the modified predicate.

PARSE. *Time* is a common noun; *flies* is an irregular intransitive verb both parsed acccording to previous models.

Swiftly, is an adverb and modifies flies. *Rule.*

Analyze and Parse.

The stream flows smoothly.
The wind blows violently.
The time will surely come.
How can the enemy escape?
The question may be settled amicably.
I will never distrust your friendship.
The rumor should not be credited.
He was extremely prodigal.
She reads properly. She writes neatly.

FOR COMPOSITION.

NOTE.—Adverbs should be placed near the verbs which they modify. *Not* and *never* should stand after the auxiliary verbs, *may, can, shall, will, might, do, would, should, could, did;* as, I will *never* distrust—not, I *never* will, &c.

Compose sentences which shall contain the following adverbs.

Anxiously.	Much.	Often.
Occasionally.	Too.	Sometimes.
Frequently.	Very.	When.
Immediately.	Chiefly.	Until.

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED.

Adjectives are sometimes improperly used as adverbs.

Henry writes careless; it should be *carelessly*. He did not conduct proper. He acts foolish. She behaved ruder (it should be *more rudely*) than she ought. He acted bolder than was expected. I shall never think mean of you. James reads distinct, writes neat, and recites correct. Do not walk so slow.

§ 105. PREPOSITIONS.

Here review §§ 32, 33. Define the preposition.

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

Above.	Below.	In.	Till
About.	Beneath.	Like.	To.
Across.	Beside, *or*	Notwithstanding.	Toward, *or*
After.	Besides.	Of.	Towards.
Against.	Between, *or*	Off.	Under.
Along.	Betwixt.	On.	Underneath.
Amid, *or*	Beyond.	Out of.	Until.
Amidst.	By.	Over.	Unto.
Among, *or*	Down.	Overthwart.	Up.
Amongst.	During.	Round.	Upon.
Around.	Ere.	Saving.	With.
At.	Except.	Since.	Within.
Athwart.	For.	Through.	Without.
Before.	From.	Throughout.	Worth.
Behind.			

REMARKS.

1. Several words in the list above are usually regarded as adverbs, when they are not followed by nouns; as, He has gone *below*, or *up*, or *down*, or *along*, or *around*, &c. It is, however, generally easy to supply the noun, when it is not expressed.

2. *Save* and *except*, are strictly verbs in the Imperative mode and govern an objective case, or a whole clause. But they are commonly treated as prepositions.

3. *Respecting*, *bating*, *saving*, *touching*, *excepting*, which are sometimes called prepositions, are really present participles, limiting some noun or pronoun in the sentence. But they are regarded by some Grammarians as prepositions.

4. *Like*, is by some considered an adverb; it is, however, followed by an objective case, which is either governed by it, or by the preposition *to*, which in most cases it would be awkward to supply.

5. *Worth* is a noun when it means *value*; an adjective when it means *equal*

in value to, or *deserving of*: It is often followed by an *objective case*, and on that account, is ranked by some grammarians among the prepositions.

6. *But* in the sense of *except* is called a preposition.

EXERCISE FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Model.

SENTENCE. Tautology is the repetition of the same word in a sentence.

ANALYZE. *Tautology* is the subject. *Is the repetition*, is the predicate, modified by the adjunct, *of the same word in a sentence*; and *in a sentence* modifies *word*, that is, it shows how or where the word must occur to make it tautology.

PARSE. *Of* is a preposition,—it *stands before* the noun *word*, which it governs in the objective case, and connects in sense with *repetition*. It connects or shows the relation between *repetition* and *word*.

In is a preposition,—it *stands before* the noun *sentence*, which it governs in the objective case; it connects *sentence* to *word*.

§ 106. RULES.

1. Prepositions connect words in a sentence, and show the relation between them.

2. Prepositions govern the objective case.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

NOTE. In analyzing sentences the learner should be taught to regard the preposition with its object as the adjunct of some word whose meaning it limits or modifies.

The doctrines *of* the gospel are practical principles.

The immense quantity *of* matter *in* the universe, presents a most striking display *of* Almighty power.

The rapid motions *of* the great bodies *of* the universe, display the infinite power *of* the Creator.

I mentioned the unexpected meeting *with* my friend, *in* a distant spot. [*In* connects spot and meeting.]

He directed my eye *with* his finger *over* another landscape.

§ 107. CONJUNCTIONS.

Review §§ 39, 40. What does the word "conjunction" signify? What do conjunctions connect?

The following is a list of nearly all the words usually termed conjunctions.

And.	Except.	Or.	Unless.
Although.	For.	Since.	Wherefore.
As.	If.	Than.	Whether.
Because.	Lest.	That.	Yet.

Both.	Neither.	Then.	Yet.
But.	Nor.	Therefore.	Save.
Either.	Notwithstanding.	Though.	Still

REMARKS.

1. A number of the words in the list above, which are now employed to connect words or sentences, appear to have been derived from the Imperative mode of Saxon verbs, whose primitive signification is as follows.

English.	*Saxon.*	*Signification.*
And.	an-ad.	add to.
But.	bot.	superadd.
But (Except.)	be-utan.	be out.
If.	gif.	give, grant.
Though.	thaf.	allow.
Yet.	get.	get.
Unless.	onles.	dismiss.

2. Several words in the list of *conjunctions* are called prepositions when they are followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case.

NOTE.—For other remarks on conjunctions, see Part III. Syntax.

§ 108. COMBINATIONS.

Prepositions are not unfrequently united with other words, forming a compound expression, equivalent in meaning to a single word; as, I *looked on* Virgil as a majestic writer.

Looked on, is a compound *transitive* verb, equivalent in meaning to "regarded," or "considered." It has, like other transitive verbs, a *passive* form; as, Virgil *was looked on, &c.*

EXERCISE.

Analyze the sentences and parse the compound verbs.

We must *look out for* words as beautiful as can be found.—*Felton.*
Words must *be looked out for*, as beautiful as can be found.
Politeness of manners, and knowledge of the world should principally *be looked after* in a tutor.—*Locke.*

NOTE.—Some intransitive verbs admit of a passive form, which includes the preposition that followed the verb in the active form; as,

He referred to the civil war in his remarks. [Active form.]
The civil war *was referred to* in his remarks. [Passive form.]
He sincerely *repented of* his sins. [Active form.]
His sins were sincerely *repented of*. [Passive form.]
He *disposed of* his property. [Active.] His property *was disposed of*. [Passive.]

REMARK 1. Prepositions are sometimes connected with certain verbal-adjectives, forming what may be termed *compound adjectives*. The event was *unlooked for*; the measure was *uncalled for*; he lived neglected and *uncared for*.

REMARK 2. Prepositions are often inseparably united with nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and with other prepositions; as, Afternoon, imprudent,* to-day, to-morrow.

REMARK 3. The prepositions *to*, and *for*, are sometimes connected with *as*, making a compound preposition, equivalent in meaning to "with respect to;" as, As for the rest; as to myself.

REMARK 4. Other combinations of words frequently occur, such as, *As well as, inasmuch as, what though, what if, as if*. Such phrases are elliptical; and to understand the import of each word, it is necessary to supply a clause to complete the grammatical structure of the sentence. See Rule XXIII., Part III., and the Idiomatic Selections following Syntax.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

NOTE.—While performing these exercises, the learner should be required to review those portions of parts I. and II. to which reference is made in the margin, by the figures 1, 2, 3, 4.

The exercises are designed to call the attention of the learner to the principles which have been explained and to fix them permanently in the memory.

Repeat Rules § 56. § 60. § 76. § 78. § 80. § 90. § 100. § 104. § 106.

EXERCISE I.

The noun and the verb. The subject and predicate. Simple sentences.

The king[1] rules.[2] Boys[3] play.[4] Time flies. Cæsar commanded.[5] The bird was singing.[6] Trees will grow.[7] The king will conquer. The day had arrived.[8] The sun had set.[9] The hands should[10] labor. Scholars should learn. The Americans might have submitted. The king should yield.

EXERCISE II.

Noun. Verb. Adverb. Modified Predicate.

The storm rages violently.[11] The sluggard sleeps soundly. The birds were singing sweetly. The time was passing pleasantly. The hour will soon[12] arrive. The ship sailed yesterday. The

* For the sake of ease in pronouncing, the *m* is substituted for *n*, before *p*, *b*, and *m*.

[1] § 46. 1. [2] § 76. [3] § 49. [4] § 65. 3. [5] § 68. 4. [6] § 68. 4. *Progressive form.* [7] § 68. 7. [8] § 68. 6. [9] § 76. [10] § 66. 3. [11] § 29. 1. [12] § 29. 2.

news came to-day. Themistocles could not rest. Friends will certainly part. The man will never listen. Perhaps[1] the child will recover. Roots grow downward.

EXERCISE III.

Adjective. Noun. Verb. Adjunct. Modified Subject. Modified Predicate. Object.

Cruel[2] war desolates flourishing cities.[3] A kind friend rescued me from danger.[4] The hunter killed a ferocious panther in the forest.

Grapes hang in clusters[5] on the vine.[6] Prosperous gales waft the light ship over the sea. Some birds hang their nests on a slender twig[7] of the highest branch of the tree.

EXERCISE IV.

A simple sentence gradually extended by the use of adjuncts or modifying words.

The storm[8] drove.

A furious *storm drove* the ship.[9]

A furious *storm*[10] *from the north*[11] *drove* the ship violently against the rocks.

The wind blew.

The gentle wind blew softly.

The gentle *south wind*, blew softly over the sea.

Knowledge enlarges.

A knowledge of the works of nature, enlarges the understanding.

An extensive knowledge of the works of nature, enlarges the understanding of men, in a variety of ways.

EXERCISE V.

Passive Form. Interrogative Form.

The debt will undoubtedly be cancelled.

The village was shaken violently by the earthquake.

The store was plundered by a gang of robbers.

No season of life should be spent in idleness.

Will he be persuaded to go?[12] Art thou he?[13]

NOTE.—The verb in the interrogative sentence has the form either of the Indicative or Potential mode.

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[1] § 29. 4.
[2] § 89. 3.
[3] § 54.
[4] § 31.
[5] § 31.
[6] § 31.
[7] § 31.
[8] § 14.
[9] § 34.
[10] § 23.
[11] What does this adjunct modify?
[12] § 79.
[13] § 81.

May I be permitted[1] to go? Is the rumor confirmed?[2] Can he succeed in his undertaking? Whither[3] shall I fly? How could he do[4] the cruel deed?

EXERCISE VI.

The contented mind spreads ease and cheerfulness around it.

The school of experience teaches many useful lessons.

The eyes of fishes, compared[5] with those[6] of terrestrial animals, exhibit a certain distinctness of structure, adapted[5] to their state and element.

Birds, in general, procure their food by means of their beak.

A nature infinitely wise can hardly be supposed to employ itself in vain.

The spirit of liberty had planted itself deeply among the Virginians.

A foraging party of the colonists, headed[5] by Argall, having stolen[5] the daughter of Powhattan, demanded of her father a ransom.

COMPOSITION.

EXERCISE I.

Compose sentences which shall contain the following expressions.

duty of the inexperienced to
The traffic in ardent spirits
Perseverance and industry will
The advantages of a good education consist
to your letter which I have lately received
It would afford me great satisfaction
in reply to your
acquainted with
a delightful morning
The follies of youth
in the highest degree valuable

EXERCISE II.

OBJECTS.

1. Let the parts of the following objects be enumerated.

A ship.	A plow.	A clock.
A book.	A chair.	A carriage.
A house.	A tree.	An ear of corn.
A table.	A fence.	A sleigh.

2. Mention the uses of the same objects. A composition of several lines may be written on each, in describing the various uses, &c.

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[1] § 65. 4. [2] § 80. [3] § 104. [4] § 65. 4. [5] § 78. [6] § 94.

EXERCISE III.

QUALITIES OF OBJECTS.

Every object admits of an adjective or adjunct, to express its quality or condition, its form, size, or comparative excellence; as, A *book*, a *large* book, or, the book is *large*; a *good* book, or, the book is useful; a book abounding in excellent sentiments.

Express some of the qualities or conditions of the following objects by adjectives or modifying adjuncts.

An apple.	A man.	The ocean.
A tree.	A horse.	A ship.
A house.	The sun.	Gold.

EXERCISE IV.

The learner may in this exercise state all the ideas and facts, which he may gain by reflection or reading on the following subjects.

EXAMPLE.

Subject.—IRON. Iron is the most valuable of all metals. Its use to some extent was known at a very early period, and has followed the progress of civilization in the world. In its natural state it is found in beds of ore, from which, by an ingenious process, it is extracted and prepared for use. The value of this metal, which abounds in almost every region of the earth, can only be appreciated, by reflecting for a moment upon the numberless uses to which it is applied.

The plow.	Glass.	Gundowder.
A ship.	The compass.	The Art of Printing.
Silver.	The telescope.	Books.

EXERCISE V.

In this exercise let some of the benefits which are derived from the following objects and provisions, be specified in writing.

The ocean.	Roads.	Rain.
Rivers.	Railroads.	Wind.
Mountains.	Steam Engine.	Sun.

EXERCISE VI.

Expand the following expressions according to the model.

Model.

I write.

I write this letter.

I write this letter to inform you that your son is well.

I write this letter to inform you that your son is well and in excellent spirits.

I write this letter to inform you that your son is well and in excellent spirits, and is perfectly contented in his new situation.

NOTE.—Each expression may be expanded to a much greater length than in the model.

I am contented.	He went.
I believe.	They stopped.
Alonzo was not to blame.	The choir sung.
I love to read.	Have you heard?

The learner can now write short compositions on subjects which are easy and familiar, like the following:

SUBJECTS.*

A visit.	The advantages of an education.
The sagacity of a dog.	A dialogue on the stars.
A sleigh ride.	A story of an elephant.

A dialogue on the study of grammar.
An anecdote about Washington.

LETTER WRITING.

The following is a proper example for imitation, in respect to the dating, beginning and closing of a letter.

Olney, June 16, 1769.

My Dear Friend:

I am obliged to you for your invitation, but being long accustomed to retirement, which I was always fond of, I am now more than ever unwilling to visit those noisy scenes which I never loved, and which I now abhor. I remember you with all the friendship I ever professed, which is as much as I ever entertained for any man.

I love you and yours, I thank you for your continued remembrance of me, and shall not cease to be their and your

Affectionate Friend,
William Cowper.

Joseph Hill, Esq.

REMARKS.

Letters should be written in an easy and natural style, but with a strict regard to neatness in the penmanship, and to propriety in the complimentary address and close, and also to pointing, folding and superscribing.

The learner should occasionally write letters to be examined and corrected by the teacher.

* The word *subject* in this connection signifies a *theme*, or that about which we may write or converse.

SYNOPSIS OF GRAMMATICAL RELATIONS.

SUBJECT.	MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE.
The SUBJECT of a sentence may be a noun or pronoun; a verb in the infinitive; a clause; or any word or letter of which something can be affirmed.	The MODIFIERS of the subject may be a noun in apposition; an adjective; a preposition with its object (adjunct); a participle; a verb in the infinitive; a relative clause; and rarely an adverb.	The PREDICATE of a sentence may be a verb; or the verb *be* with any word or expression connected with it, to complete an assertion.	The MODIFIERS of the predicate may be a noun in the objective case, (if the verb is transitive;) a verb in the infinitive; an adverb; a preposition with its object (adjunct); a clause; and rarely an adjective.

The Subject, whose meaning is modified by one or more words, is called the MODIFIED (or logical) SUBJECT.

The Predicate, whose meaning is modified by one or more words, is called the MODIFIED (or logical) PREDICATE.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

MODIFIED SUBJECTS.

SUBJECT.	MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT.
Ferdinand,	the *king*,
He,	the *marquis* of Cadiz,
To die	*in peace*,
That you have wronged me	*by* your *denial*,
Evergreens	*only*, *among the trees*,
An,	called an article,
The rose,	so *fair* and *beautiful* to-day,
Those,	who are obliging,

MODIFIED PREDICATES.

PREDICATE.	MODIFIERS OF THE PRED.
held	a *council at Cordova*.
beheld	*from a distance*, *the peril* of the king.
is the privilege	*of the good*.
is evident	*from* your own *admission*.
look	*verdant*, *in the winter*.
is derived	*from* a Saxon *word*.
may wither and fade	to-morrow.
may expect	to be accommodated.

MODIFICATION OF WORDS

NOUN OR PRONOUN.

A noun or pronoun may be modified

1. By a noun in apposition; as, George, the *king*.
2. By an adjective; as, A *tall* mast.
3. By a preposition with its object (adjunct); as, A life *of toil*.
4. By a participle; as, The sun *rising*.
5. By a verb in the infinitive; as, A time *to die*.
6. By a relative clause; as, I, *who speak with you*.
7. Rarely by an adverb; as, Not my feet *only*.

VERB OR PARTICIPLE.

A verb or participle may be modified

1. By a noun in the objective case, if the verb is transitive; as, The sun gives *light*.
2. By a verb in the infinitive; as, He hopes *to return*.
3. By a preposition with its object; as, I walk *in the grove*.
4. By a clause; as, I hope *that you are well*.
5. By an adjective; as, The wind blows *fresh*.

ADJECTIVE.

An adjective may be modified

1. By an adverb; as, *Very* rich.
2. By a verb in the infinitive; as, Pleasant *to behold*.
3. By a preposition with its object; as, True *to nature*.
4. By another adjective; as, *Deep* blue; *Liverpool deep blue* earthen pitchers.

ADVERB.

An adverb may be modified

1. By another adverb; as *Most* assuredly.
2. By a preposition with its object (adjunct); as, Agreeably *to nature*, most *of all*.

PREPOSITION.

A preposition may be modified

1. By an adverb; as, *Far* beyond.
2. By a noun in the objective case; as, Over *the hills*.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

A Compound Sentence is made up of two or more simple sentences joined by connectives. CONNECTIVES are, 1. *Conjunctions*; 2. *Conjunctive Adverbs*; 3. *Relative words*.

NOUNS INDEPENDENT.

Nouns which have no grammatical connection with the subject or predicate of a sentence, are said to be *independent* as, O *virtue!*

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

A Sentence may be analyzed by dividing it into the parts of which it is composed, and explaining their relations.

1. Divide the sentence into its two general parts, viz: the Subject or Modified Subject, the Predicate or Modified Predicate.

2. Explain the mutual relations, and point out the office of every word which has any modifying influence.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

1. *Declarative*; as, I write.
2. *Interrogative*; as, Do you write?
3. *Imperative*; as, Buy the truth.
4. *Subjunctive*; as, If it rains.
5. *Exclamatory*; as, How much he resembles his father!

PART III.

§ 109. SYNTAX.

1. Syntax treats of sentences, and teaches the proper construction of words in forming them.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

1. Sentences are of five kinds; *declaratory, imperative, interrogative, conditional* and *exclamatory.*

2. *A declaratory sentence* is one in which any thing is simply affirmed or denied of a subject; as, Time flies; he will not understand.

3. *An imperative sentence* is one in which a command is expressed: as, Buy the truth, and sell it not.

4. *An interrogative sentence* is one in which a question is asked; as, Who hath believed our report?

5. *A conditional sentence* is one in which something contingent or *hypothetical* is expressed, and is always dependent on another sentence with which it is connected by a conjunction; as, If it rains; though he slay me.

6. *An exclamatory sentence* is one in which something surprising is expressed, or in which full utterance is given to some strong or sudden emotion; as, There stands the mighty Mansfield! May my tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth!

7. Sentences are either *simple* or *compound. A simple sentence* consists of but one proposition; *a compound sentence* consists of two or more simple sentences.

8. The simple propositions which make up a compound sentence, are called *clauses* or *members.*

9. The *leading clause* is one on which the other members depend.

10. *A dependent clause,* is one which makes complete sense only in connection with another clause.

§ 110. SIMPLE SENTENCES.

A simple sentence contains only one subject or nominative, and one predicate. See explanation in Part I.

EXAMPLES.

Water flows, is a simple sentence;—it is a simple statement, containing only one subject, *water*, and one predicate *flows*.

Birds fly. Why a simple sentence? Which is the predicate? Which the subject?

The sea roars. Why a simple sentence?

The trees put forth their leaves. What kind of a sentence? Why? Point out the subject,—the predicate. Which is the object or objective case? Answer. *Leaves.*

REMARKS.

1. The subject of a sentence may be simple or compound.

2. The subject is simple when it is a single noun; as, The rose is fragrant; *rose* is the simple subject.

3. The subject is simple when it consists of two or more nouns joined by some connecting word, if what is asserted of them *together* cannot be asserted of them separately; as, Two and three make five, that is, two and three together make five, but the same cannot be asserted of them separately, viz; two make five, and three make five. *Two and three*, then, are the simple subject of make. The horse and chaise are worth forty pounds. *Horse and chaise*, is the simple subject.

4. The subject is *compound* when it consists of two or more nouns connected by a conjunction, if what is said of the whole, can be said of each separately; as, Pompey and Cæsar were Roman generals; here, what is said of both can be said of each, viz: Pompey was a Roman general; Cæsar was a Roman general.

5. The predicate also may be simple or compound; simple, when but one thing is asserted of the subject; compound, when more than one thing is asserted of the subject; as, Honesty is praised; *is praised* is a simple predicate; it asserts but one thing of honesty; *honesty is praised and neglected; is praised and neglected* is a compound predicate, because more than one thing is asserted of honesty, the subject.

§ 111. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

1. A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences.

2. The simple sentences which make up a compound sentence are called *clauses*.

EXAMPLES.

The wind subsides and the clouds disperse.

The wind subsides, is a simple sentence or *clause*.
The clouds disperse, is another simple sentence, or *clause*. The conjunction *and* connects them.
Together they make a *compound* sentence.

Metellus conquered Jugurtha and took his elephants.

What kind of a sentence is this? Why? Point out the simple sentences or clauses which compose it. Which is the connecting word?

§ 112. CONNECTIVES.*

The clauses of a compound sentence are connected by *Conjunctions*, *Adverbs*, and *Relatives*.

I. BY CONJUNCTIONS.

Here review § 39. Repeat the list of conjunctions, § 107.
Do conjunctions connect words? Give an example. § 39. Give other examples.

EXAMPLES.

Point out the conjunctions in the following examples and show what they connect.

True valor protects the feeble, *and* humbles the oppressor.

Is this sentence simple or compound? Of how many clauses is it composed? What word connects these clauses?

High seasoned food vitiates the palate, *and* occasions a disrelish for plain fare.

The desert shall rejoice, *and* the wilderness shall blossom.

Disappointment sinks the heart; *but* the renewal of hope gives consolation.

His vices have weakened his mind, *and* broken his health.

I know not *whether* Charles was the author, *but* I understood it to be him.

In the last sentence, there are three clauses or simple sentences.—1. *I know not.* 2. *Charles was the author.* 3. *I understood it to be him.*
The first two are connected by *whether*, the 2d and 3d by *but*.

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* Particular attention should be given to the subject of connectives; a neglect of which, makes parsing a merely mechanical exercise.

If you would please to employ your thoughts on that subject, you would easily conceive our miserable condition.

This compound sentence consists of two clauses or simple sentences. 1. From *if* to *subjects*. 2. From *you* to *condition*.
The conjunction *if* connects them.

If he approve my endeavors, it will be an ample reward.
If I had known the distress of my friend, it would have been my duty to relieve him.
I thought *that* Titus was your friend.

That is the conjunction, and connects the two clauses.

I see *that* you are sad.
I respect him *because* he is sincere.

II. BY ADVERBS.

NOTE.—Adverbs which connect clauses are called *conjunctive adverbs*.

When he is in town, he lives in Soho square.

This sentence consists of two clauses. 1. *He is in town.* 2. *He lives in Soho square.* They are connected by the conjunctive adverb *when*.

Whilst I was lamenting this sudden desolation, the whole scene vanished.

Whilst connects the two clauses.

The rest will I set in order *when* I come.

III. BY RELATIVES.

He came to the Alps, *which* separate Italy from Gaul.

This compound sentence is composed of two clauses. 1. *He came to the Alps.* 2. *Separate Italy from Gaul.* The relative *which*, connects them, and stands in the place of *Alps*, to which it refers as its antecedent

I read the letter *which* he received.
It is God, *whom* we worship.
I am Miltiades, *who* conquered the Persians.
The city, *which* Romulus built, is called Rome.

REMARK.

Combinations of words frequently connect sentences, such as, *In as much as, as well as, in order that, with the intent that*, or any expression which seems merely to show the relation between the parts of a compound sentence

COMPOSITION.

Write compound sentences, using the following nouns and connectives.

Model.

Subject—The time. *Connective*—When.

Compound Sentence. The *time* has come *when* I must depart. We shall never forget the *time when* we parted.

Subjects.	*Connectives.*
The world.	Which.
The man.	Who.
The youth.	If.
Youth.	When.

Write other compound sentences, each of which shall include one of the following connectives.

That, since, and, whether, whilst, which, as well as, but, or, whose, whom, because.

REMARKS.

1. The learner will bear in mind, that every compound sentence contains as many simple sentences or clauses, as it has finite verbs, expressed or implied.

NOTE.—A finite verb is a verb not in the Infinitive mode.

2. It is of great importance to understand how the clauses of a compound sentence are connected, and what relation they bear to one another. The learner should never neglect a connective, but carefully consider whether it connects words or clauses, and whether it is an adverb, conjunction, or relative. After the office of the connective has been pointed out, each clause of the compound sentence should be analyzed, as explained in Part I.

§ 113. PUNCTUATION.*

NOTE.—The importance of a correct punctuation will justify the introduction of the subject in this place. The general principles which govern the use of the points or marks, will be easily learned by oral instruction, or by writing sentences without marks, on the BLACK-BOARD, and punctuating them according to the general rules given below.

THE USE OF THE COMMA.

The comma [,] which is the mark most frequently used in punctuation may be inserted according to the following Rules:

RULE 1. The comma should be used to separate the clauses of a compound sentence.

* Writers differ much in regard to punctuation; some use fewer marks than others; some dispense entirely with the colon [:]; some use the comma where others would use the semicolon [;]. There is, indeed, a great want of uniformity in punctuation, the principal object of which is to separate the parts of a sentence, that their relations may not be misunderstood.

EXAMPLES.

A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish man despiseth his mother.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two clauses which are separated by a comma.

EXERCISE.

(*a*) Analyze the following sentences and explain the use of the comma.

A stone is heavy, and the sand [is] weighty. As cold water to a thirsty soul, so is good news from a far country.

The sun had risen bright and high,
And cloudless shone along the sky.

(*b*) Insert commas in the proper places in the following compound sentences, Let each sentence be analyzed before inserting the comma.

When the graces of novelty are worn off admiration is succeeded by indifference. The ox knoweth his owner the ass his master's crib Israel doth not know my people do not consider. He who preserves me to whom I owe my being whose I am and whom I serve is eternal.

NOTE.—When the compound sentence consists of two clauses only, which are closely connected, the comma may be omitted; as, The sluggard is wiser in his own conceit, than seven men that can render a reason.

RULE 2. The comma should be used to mark the omission of some word or words, necessary to a complete grammatical construction.

EXAMPLE.

Self conceit, presumption, and obstinacy, blast the prospects of many a youth.

By analyzing this compound sentence, it will be perceived, that the commas after *conceit* and *presumption*, denote the omission of *and*, or of the predicate, *blasts the prospects;* for the compound sentence may be divided into as many parts as there are subjects; as, Self conceit blasts, presumption blasts, and obstinacy blasts. The subjects taken together make a compound subject.

EXERCISE.

(*a*) Analyze the following sentences, and supply some word or words whose omission is indicated by the comma.

Health, life, possessions, connections, and pleasures, will imperceptibly vanish away. To err is human; to forgive, divine. His wisdom, not his talents, attracted attention.

(*b*) Insert the comma to mark the ellipsis in the following sentences.

The earth the sea the rain the snow the night the day summer and winter seed time and harvest show forth the wisdom and goodness of the Creator. He was gigantic in knowledge in virtue in health.

RULE 3. The case independent, with its modifying words, all detached assertions and phrases, direct quotations, and adverbs used independently, or referring to the whole sentence, should be separated by commas; as,

"Why, Mr. Pearson," said she, "you are just like Dr. Johnson, I think." *Mr. Pearson* is in the case independent; the adverb, *why*, is used independently, or it refers to the whole sentence; *said she*, is a *detached* assertion. *Why, Mr. Pearson*, and *said she*, are separated by commas, according to the rule.

NOTE.—The words, *yes, no, now, however, indeed, perhaps, again, finally*, and the phrases, *in short, at length, at least, in return*, and the like, are generally to be separated by commas from the words contiguous to them.

RULE 4. A comma is sometimes used to separate words and clauses, expressing contrast or opposition; as,

Liberal, not lavish, is kind nature's hand.
Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull.

RULE 5. When three or more nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs occur in succession, they should be separated by commas; as,

A woman, gentle, sensible, well informed, and religious. The husband, wife, and children, suffered extremely. In a letter, we may advise, exhort, comfort, request, and discuss.

RULE 6. Clauses and phrases, which occur between words connected in construction; and words in apposition, when accompanied with adjuncts, are generally separated by commas; as,

Johnson had repeated a psalm which he had translated, *during his affliction*, into Latin verses. Cowper, *the gifted poet*, died in the year 1800. Miltiades, *the son of Cimon*, the Athenian.

NOTE.—If the word in apposition is not limited by an adjunct, or qualified by an adjective, the comma should not be inserted; as, Milton the poet.

RULE 7. The parts of a simple sentence are generally

separated, except when they are long, or interrupted by phrases or explanatory words; as,

The eyes of the mind are like the eyes of the body.

To be very active in laudable pursuits, is the distinguishing characteristic of a man of merit.

REMARK.—The insertion of a comma between contiguous words, closely connected in construction, should be avoided, unless such words are particularly emphatic or important.

SEMICOLON, COLON, AND PERIOD.

The semicolon [;] is placed between the clauses of a period,* which are less closely connected than such as are separated by commas.

NOTE.—It is impossible to give very definite rules for the use of the semicolon. Its use, like that of other pauses, must be learned in a great measure by observing how it is employed by the most correct writers.

The colon [:] is used when there is still less connection in the parts of a period, than that which is indicated by the semicolon. See note above.

The period [.] is used after a sentence which is complete and independent.

A period is also used after abbreviations; as, N. S., P. S., N. B.

The dash [—] denotes an abrupt turn in the sentence; or, that a significant pause is required; as, Here lies the great—*false* marble. It is also used to denote the omission of letters in a word, and of words in a sentence; as, K—g for king.

The mark of interrogation [?] is used to denote that a question is asked.

The mark of exclamation [!] denotes wonder or surprise.

The parenthesis ( ) is used to include an explanatory clause, not connected in construction with the rest of the sentence.

The brackets, [ ] or hooks, are used to inclose an explanatory note or word.†

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* A period is a sentence complete, making perfect sense, and not connected in construction with what follows.—*Webster.*

† The use of other marks, such as the apostrophe (′), the double comma (“ ”), caret (ʌ), &c., can be learned from spelling books.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

§ 114. THE NOUN AND PRONOUN.

RULE I.

A noun or a pronoun annexed to another noun, and denoting the same person or thing, is put in the same case; as, Cicero, *the orator*.

NOTE.—This construction is called *apposition*.

EXAMPLES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Herschel, the *astronomer*, discovered the planet *Uranus*.

Astronomer is annexed to Herschel, and is in the nominative case. Why? Uranus is joined to planet, and is in the objective case. Why?

Washington, the *commander-in-chief* of the American army, was born near the banks of the Potomac.

Webster, a dramatic *poet* of the seventeenth century, was clerk of the parish of St. Andrew.

Tippecanoe, a *river* of Indiana, is rendered famous for a battle between the Americans and Indians.

I dined with him at our friend* *Davies's*.

REMARKS.

1. A noun is sometimes in apposition with a *clause*; as, The eldest son was always brought up to that employment, a *custom* which he and my father followed.

2. A clause, or a verb in the Infinitive mode, is sometimes in apposition with a noun preceding it; as, I would only mention at present one article, *that of maintenance of the clergy*.

3. A noun in apposition is frequently connected with the one which is explained, by the conjunction *as*; as, My father intended to devote me *as the tythe* of his sons.

NOTE.—The word *as* appears to be used frequently in the sense of the Latin preposition *pro, instead of, in place of, for, in the capacity of*.

4. Names or titles employed to distinguish individuals of a family or class, are by some parsed as nouns in apposition; as, *George* Washington, *Mr.* Thompson, *Dr.* West, *Col.* Hardy;

* Friend is in the possessive case, the apostrophe being omitted; Davies's is in apposition with friend.

by some they are called adjectives; by others the general name, with the specific appellation or titles, is called a *complex* noun.

EXAMPLES.*

Benjamin Franklin. Franklin is the *general name;* Benjamin is the *specific;* together they constitute a *complex noun.*
Mr. William Barclay,—a complex noun.
General Z. Taylor,—a complex noun.
Mrs. E. Thornton,—a complex noun.

Let other examples of complex nouns be mentioned.

5. A noun in apposition with two or more nouns, is put in the plural.

COMPOSITION.

Compose several sentences which shall contain examples of nouns in apposition.

SUBJECTS. *George Washington. America.*

REVIEW.

1. Define the word *apposition.* 2. Repeat the rule for nouns in apposition. 3. Can words of different meaning be in apposition? 4. Give some examples of nouns in apposition. 5. Explain the rule of apposition, by the expressions, *George the king, Alexander the conqueror.* 6. Can a noun be in apposition with a clause or sentence? *This was a saying of Franklin; time is money.* What words are in apposition in this sentence? 7. Give some examples of *complex nouns.* 8. *Samuel Johnson.* Are these words in apposition? 9. Mention the different ways in which specific nouns and titles are parsed.

RULE II.

Some intransitive verbs and transitive verbs in the passive form have the same case *after* as before them, when both words refer to the same person or thing; as, *It* is *he, His name* is called *John.*

NOTE.—1. This rule is chiefly applicable to the verbs *to be, to become,* and some other intransitive verbs, and also to some transitive verbs in the passive form; such as denote *to name, to render, to make,* and the like.

* Several proper nouns which distinguish an individual are always put in apposition; as, *William Pitt.—G. Brown.*
Nouns common or proper of dissimilar import may be parsed as adjectives when they become qualifying or distinguishing words; as, *President* Madison, *Lake* Erie, *&c.—Sanborn.*

2. Adjectives and participles are often joined with such verbs to form the predicate; as, The apple is *ripe*, the day is *dawning*.

3. A few transitive verbs in the active form, are followed by nouns of the same signification, in the *objective* case; as, *It* means *nothing*; *verb* signifies *a word*.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Intransitive Verbs.

Clement was the name of many popes.
A coronation is a solemn inauguration of a monarch.
The diamond is the most valuable gem.
The youth will become a poet.
Stephen died a martyr to his faith.

Passive Verbs.

Washington *is called* the *father* of his country.
Napoleon Bonaparte, an inhabitant of Corsica, *was styled* the *Emperor* of France.
In England, a kind of trident is used for catching eels, *called* an *eel-spear*.
Cicero and *Antonius* were called *consuls*.

REMARKS.

1. Rule II. is applicable to the Infinitive mode, and participles of verbs of the same class.

EXAMPLES.

I desire to be *a poet*;—*poet* is the nominative *after* to be, because *I* is the nominative *before* it.

I believe *him* to be a *knave*;—*knave* is in the objective *after* to be, because *him* is in the objective *before* to be.

NOTE.—To determine what case the noun following the Infinitive or participle is in, inquire what other word in the sentence means the same person or thing.

I am tired of being *an idler*. In what case is *idler*? Why?

I cannot bear the thought of being *an exile* from my country. *Exile* is the nominative after being, in the same case with *I*.

2. Both words sometimes stand before, and sometimes after the verb; as, Art *thou he*? Am *I* a *traitor*? *Monster* as *thou* art, I will yet obey thee.

NOTE.—Transposition for the sake of emphasis, and in questions, is not unfrequent.

3. A *verb* in the Infinitive mode, a phrase, or a sentence, is sometimes used as the nominative after a verb; as, It is pleasant *to die* for one's country.

SENTENCES TO BE CORRECTED.

Show by Rule II. wherein these examples are incorrect.

I that speak unto thee am *him*.
It was not *him* that said it.
It cannot be *him*.
Whom are *you*?
Whom do men say that *I* am?
Who do they represent *me* to be?
I do not think *it* is *him*.

COMPOSITION.

1. Supply words according to the rule to fill the blanks.

Virtue is the surest —— to happiness.
Modesty is a lasting ——.
America is a —— and a —— originally inhabited by —— who were ——
The sun is the —— of light and heat.
Sleep is the —— of death.

2. Write five sentences, each of which shall contain examples of this rule on the following subjects.

Home.	Friendship.
Time.	Virtue.

REVIEW.

1. Repeat Rule II. 2. How does Rule II. differ from Rule I.? *Ans.* Cases of Rule II. occur where a verb separates the two nouns; as, Time *is* money; *is* separates *time* and *money*; in cases of Rule I. no verb intervenes; as, Cicero the *orator*. 3. Give some examples of nouns in apposition. Cicero the orator—is Rule I. or II. applicable to this expression? Cicero *was* an orator. Which Rule applies? 4. Give some examples of the same case *after* as *before* the verb. 5. Repeat the Remark under Rule II. 6. What sometimes supplies the place of one of the nouns? Give an example. 7. Why is the expression, *it is me*, incorrect?

§ 115. THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

THE GENERAL PRINCIPLES ON WHICH THE FOLLOWING RULES FOR THE NOMINATIVE CASE ARE BASED.

Let these principles be carefully studied.

1. The noun, or a substitute for a noun, of which the verb or predicate affirms something, is called the subject, or nominative case; and as every

finite verb may be used to affirm something, every finite verb admits of a *subject* or *nominative case*.* For example, *runs, burns, blows,* may be used to affirm something; and to make sense, a word must stand before each; that word will be the subject or nominative case.

2. When the nominative case denotes one thing only, the singular form of the verb is required; but when the nominative or subject denotes more than one thing, the verb is plural; as, George *is* a student; James and John *are* brothers; to lie and to steal *are* infamous crimes. In like manner the verb must conform to the *person* of the nominative.

3. A *noun* or *pronoun*, a *part of a sentence*, a verb in the *Infinitive mode*, or any *word*, or *expression*, of which something can be affirmed or declared, may be in the nominative case. For example, *Fire* burns; *he* is learned; *that you have wronged me*, doth appear in this; *to lie* is base; *when* is an adverb; *O* is a word of exclamation; *and* is a connective; *composing* is a difficult exercise. *Fire, that you have wronged me, to lie, when, and, composing*, are all in the nominative case, because something is declared or affirmed of each.

RULE III.

The nominative case is the subject of the verb.

Review § 56.

RULE IV.

A verb agrees with its nominative case in number and person.

NOTE.—The verbs *need* and *dare*, when intransitive, are sometimes used in the plural form with a singular nominative.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Varo was esteemed a learned man, but Aristides was called just.

Titus has been called the love and delight of the human race.

Shall a barbarian have these cultivated fields?

At Burlington, I made an acquaintance with many principal people of the province.

The first impression made by the proceedings of the American Congress on our people in general, was greatly in our favor.

REMARKS.

1. A verb in the Infinitive mode, a participle, a clause or a part of a sentence, may be the subject of a verb.

* A few verbs are sometimes used without any definite subject; as, Let there be light. The verb *methinks*, and the verbs in the expressions, *as regards, as appears, &c.*, may be considered anomalous.

EXAMPLES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

To see the sun is pleasant.

To excel in knowledge is honorable; but to be ignorant is base.

That you may enjoy every felicity, is my fervent prayer.

Promising and not performing, is evidence of insincerity.

2. The nominative case generally stands before the verb, but sometimes follows it.

EXAMPLES.

Point out the nominatives which follow the verb.

The wages of sin is death. In the beginning was the word. In him was life. Believest thou this? Come ye in peace, or come ye in war?

NOTE 1.—An intransitive verb between two nominatives generally agrees with the first.

NOTE 2.—The nominative sometimes follows the verb, when it is preceded by *here, there, hence, thence, then, thus, such, so,* and some other words; as, *Here* is ripe fruit.

NOTE 3.—The nominative is commonly omitted after a verb in the imperative mode; as, Begone [thou], haste [ye], let [thou] him depart.

NOTE 4.—In interrogative expressions, the nominative usually follows the verb or its auxiliary; as, Who do *men* say that I am?

3. *Methinks* (imperfect *methought,*) is called an impersonal verb, compounded of the pronoun *me,* in the objective case, and the verb *think,* which follows the analogy of some Latin and Greek verbs, and by custom is used with the *objective* instead of the *nominative* case, and takes the form of the *third* person instead of the first.

4. *As regards, as concerns, as respects, as appears.* These are phrases without a nominative case expressed. The pronoun *it* is often used before these verbs, and is easily supplied when wanting.

5. *As follows.* The nominative case can be supplied before this verb, as the connection requires. He addressed the assembly *as follows.* This can be analyzed thus, He addressed the assembly in a manner *as this which follows.*

By several authors, *as* is considered a relative pronoun when used before the verb follows; as, The circumstances were *as* follow, [those *which* follow.]

6. A verb in the Imperative mode, and the transitive verbs *need, want* and *require,* sometimes appear to be used indefinitely, without a nominative; as, *Let* there be light; there *required* haste in the business; there *needs* no argument for proving; there *wanted* not men who would, &c. The last expressions have an active form with a passive sense, and should, perhaps, be

considered elliptical rather than wanting a nominative; as, *Haste is required, no argument is needed, &c.*

7. The verb which agrees with the nominative case is sometimes omitted; as, To whom the *monarch; replied* is omitted. What a bloom in that person! The verb *is* is omitted.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED ACCORDING TO REMARKS III. IV. AND VI.

Methinks this single consideration will be sufficient to extinguish all envy.

Methought I was admitted into a long spacious gallery.

I am indifferent as regards my personal security.

As appears from the evidence, he is guilty of an atrocious crime.

Let there be no strife betwixt me and thee.

"Marry," says* I, "if it be so, I am very well rewarded for all the pains I have been at."—*Addison.*

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED BY RULE IV.

Show by the rule why these examples are incorrect.

The clouds has dispersed. The rivers has overflowed their banks. There was three Indians in the company. A variety of blessings has been conferred upon us. In piety and virtue consist the happiness of man. What names has the planets? There goes the ships freighted with treasure. There follows from thence these plain consequences. There is men who never reason. The smiles that encourage severity of judgment, hides malice and insincerity. Some foggy days, and about ten or twelve days in January, was cold and icy. How do your pulse beat? How does your plans succeed?

REVIEW.

1. Repeat rules III. and IV. and explain them by examples. 2. "To err is human"—Show how the rules apply in this sentence. *What* is human? what then is the nominative? which remark under rule IV. is applicable? 3. "Whence art thou?"—Which word is the nominative? does the nominative generally stand *before* or *after* the verb? 4. Repeat the I. and II. general remarks under Rule IV. 5. How is *methinks* explained? 6. What is said of *as regards, as concerns, &c.* 7. Are any verbs used without a nominative case?

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* There are *irregular* expressions occasionally to be met with, which usage or custom rather than analogy, sanction. Such as, *Says I, thinks I, &c.* These however are ungrammatical, and should not be imitated.

COMPOSITION.

Supply nominatives for the following verbs, with which the verbs will agree, in number and person.

—read.	—surprise.	—admire.	—go.
—reads.	—has arrived.	—admires.	—make.
—readest.	—have arrived.	—goes.	—makes.
—surprises.	—hast arrived.	—have gone.	—walks.

Supply verbs for the following nominatives.

Misfortune—	The wind—	Horses—	The rivers—
Misfortunes—	The lion—	Modesty—	The world—
Happiness—	Lions—	Industry—	Patience—

SYNONYMES.

Synonymes are words which have the same meaning.

NOTE.—There are many words which are used in the same sense, and may be interchanged to avoid the repetition of the same word in a sentence. Such words differ in their *literal* signification, but in various connections convey the same meaning. These are called Synonymes; for example,

Signification, *meaning*, *import*, *sense*,* are synonymes, three of which are used in the note preceding.

COMPOSITION.

1. Compose five sentences, each of which shall comprise one of the following synonymes as a *nominative case.*

Build, erect, construct; *comprise*, comprehend, embrace, contain, include; *compose*, form, constitute.

RULE V.

Two or more nouns or pronouns connected by *and*, expressed or understood, generally require a plural verb; as, Charles, Thomas, and George, *are* brothers.†

NOTE. 1.—When the nouns connected by *and* refer to the *same person or thing*, the verb is singular; as, Why is *dust and ashes* proud?

NOTE 2.—When *every* stands before each of the nouns, the verb is singular; as, *Every officer* and *every soldier claims* a superiority.

NOTE 3.—When the adverb *not* stands before one of the nouns connected,

*The best English authors sometimes imitate the Greek and Roman writers in using a singular verb after nouns connected by and; as, Their safety and welfare *is* most concerned.—*Spectator.* The majority of Grammarians, however, do not approve this license.

†It would not be proper to substitute one of these words for each of the others in every connection. The pupil should be required to give from the dictionary the literal signification of each.

the verb agrees with the other; as, Diligent *industry*, and not mean savings, *produces* honorable competence.*

REMARK.

When the nominatives connected by *and* are of different *persons*, the verb agrees with the first person rather than with the second, and with the second rather than with the third; as, My brother and I are interested in the work. The verb *are* is in the *first person*, because *I* is of the first person; and it is in the *plural number*, because brother and I are connected by *and*, and make a compound subject.

Model of analyzing sentences which fall under Rule V.

SENTENCE. Tranquility and love dwell here.

ANALYZE. The sentence is simple, having a compound subject.

Tranquility and love is the compound subject; *and* is the connective. *Dwell* is the predicate modified by here. Or the sentence may be considered compound, and be resolved into two simple sentences; as, Tranquility dwells here, and love dwells here; in this case *and* connects the verbs. The former method is preferable.

TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Reason and truth constitute intellectual gold.

Riches, honors, and pleasures, steal away the heart from religion.

The planetary system, boundless space, and the immense ocean, affect the mind with sensations of astonishment.

Prosperity with humility, renders its possessor truly amiable.

TO BE CORRECTED.

NOTE.—The reasons for the correction should be given in every instance.

Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices. Time and tide waits for no man. Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains. The forehead, the eyes, and the countenance, often deceives. Castor and Pollux was seen to fight on horseback. The following treatise, together with those that accompany it, were written many years ago. His wisdom, not his money, produce esteem.

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*A nominative singular sometimes has an adjunct connected with it, by *with*, *in company with*, or by some other *connective phrase*, which gives, in reference to the whole subject, the idea of plurality, and occasionally such a subject is used with a plural verb; as, The angle H. with the angles B and C. *compose* [composes] the triangle; the king, with the lords and commons, *constitute* [constitutes] an excellent form of government. In all such examples, a *singular verb* is more strictly in accordance with the principles of construction, and with the usage of the best writers.

RULE VI.

Two or more nominatives singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, require a singular verb; as, Ambition *or* pride controls him.

REMARK 1. If either of the nominatives thus connected is plural, the verb usually agrees with it; as, Neither poverty nor riches were injurious to him. But in this case the plural nominative should be placed next to the verb.

REMARK 2. If the nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, are of different persons, the verb agrees with the person placed next to it; as, Either *thou* or *I* am mistaken.

NOTE.—Of two or three pronouns of different persons, the second is usually placed before the third, and the first should always be placed nearest to the verb; as, George or I am the person Such expressions as, Either *you* or *I* am in fault, *George* or *I* am the person, are inelegant, and may be easily avoided. It would be better to say, either *I* am to blame, or *you* are; either *George* is in fault or I *am*.

TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

The method of analyzing examples under this rule is similar to that presented in the model under Rule V.

Ignorance or negligence has caused the mistake.
John, James, or Andrew, intends to accompany you.
Death or some worse misfortune soon divides them.
History or geography is a proper study for youth.
Extreme heat or extreme cold is painful.

RULE VII.

The nominative of a collective noun requires a verb in the *singular* or *plural*, according as the noun denotes unity or plurality; as, The *class was large;* my *people do* not consider.

NOTE 1.—The *plural* form of the verb is more commonly used.
NOTE 2.—When the definitive *this*, or *that*, precedes the noun, the verb must be singular.

TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

A part mount the horses and guide the reins.
A great multitude hurl stones and darts.
The court has just ended.
In France the peasantry go barefoot.

The people rejoice in that which should cause them sorrow.
The fleet was seen sailing up the channel.
The nobility are the pillars to support the throne.
A company of troops was detached.

TO BE CORRECTED BY RULES VI. AND VII.

James or Charles were in fault. Neither authority nor analogy support such an opinion. Either ability or inclination were wanting. Neither the father or the son was saved. Neither the general nor the soldiers was charged with cowardice. The British parliament are composed of king, lords and commons. A council were called. The crowd were very great. The fleet is all arrived. This sort of goods are not fashionable.

GENERAL REVIEW OF THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

1. What are the general principles which govern the construction of the nominative case? 2. Repeat Rules III. IV. V. VI. and VII. 3. When must the verb be singular? Give examples. 4. When must a verb be plural? Give examples. 5. What besides a noun can be the subject of a verb? 6. When a nominative is a verb in the Infinitive, or a sentence, what must be the person and number of the verb? *Ans.* Third person, singular. 7. If two Infinitives are connected by *and*, in what number must the verb be? *Ans.* Plural. 8. When pronouns of different persons are connected by *and*, in which person must the verb be? If connected by *or*, in which person?

COMPOSITION.

Write sentences, using for a nominative case, the following words connected by *and, or, nor,* &c.

Anger and revenge —. Washington and Lafayette —. Neither the moon nor the stars —. I or you —. He or I —. The man or the boy —. James with his brother —.

SYNONYMES.

Make each of the following words, in turn, the subject of a sentence, i.e., a nominative case.

Anger, resentment, wrath, ire, indignation, choler, rage, fury, multitude, crowd, throng, swarm.

REMARK.

After the sentence is composed the scholar may be required to substitute one of the synonymes for another of like import; thus, A *multitude* of people were present. For *multitude*, substitute *crowd*. A *crowd* of people, a *throng* of people, a *swarm* of people, &c.

In this manner he will find that there is often an impropriety in using one synonyme for another; for instance, he might properly say a *swarm* of bees, but not a *throng* or a *crowd* of bees.

For the Board or Slate.

Write the synonymes or words of similar meaning to

Company, maxim, nation, mirth, mercy, matrimony, care, anguish, malice, medley, cargo, argument.

§ 116. THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

RULE VIII.

A noun or pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the object possessed.

See §§ 57, 58.

TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

He spoke slightingly of Dyer's fleece.
I asked for Barkerville's edition of Barclay's Apology.
My ways are not thy ways.
He accompanied me to St. Mary's church.
His lady was the daughter of Johnson's first schoolmaster.
I have received your letter.
Their insolence is intolerable.
My country has claims, my children have claims, and my own character has claims upon me.

REMARKS.

1. The noun denoting the thing *owned* or *possessed* is often omitted, when it can be easily supplied; as, We dined at Peter *Garrick's; house* is omitted; vital air was a discovery of Priestley's; that is, of Priestley's *discoveries;* the same as to say, Vital air was one of Priestley's discoveries.

EXERCISES.

You will see his sister at Mr. Hector's.
I found Dr. Johnson at Mr. Seward's.
Sometimes I smoke a pipe at Child's (coffee house.)
This was a discovery of Newton's.
There was also a book of De Foe's, and another of Dr. Mather's.

2. When two or more noun's imply joint possession of the same object, the sign ('s) is generally omitted after the first, but annexed to the last; as, *Sanborn* and *Carter's* book-store. Sanborn and Carter, joint owners, are both in the possessive case, and are governed by book-store; but the *sign* is annexed to *Carter* only.

3. When two or more nouns denote *separate* ownership, each noun has the sign annexed; as, *Cowper's, Thomson's* and *Coleridge's* works. *Works* is understood after each possessive.

4. When the possessive is denoted by two or more words so closely related as not to admit a pause between them, the last generally has the sign; as, John *the Baptist's* head; the king of *Great Britain's* prerogative; at our friend Sir Robert Hinkley's; the captain of *the guard's* house.

NOTE 1.—In case of possessives in apposition, if the governing word is omitted, the sign is generally annexed to the first, especially if the possessive is described by more than two words; as, I dined at Walton's, an amiable and worthy man. I left the parcel at Smith's, the book-seller and stationer.

NOTE 2.—The preposition *of* with its *objective case*, often supplies the place of the possessive; as, The advice of my father, or, my father's advice.

NOTE 3.—Where, by the use of the possessive, an expression would be harsh or obscure, *of* with the *objective* should be employed in its stead.

5. The possessive is often governed by a participial noun; as, Much will depend on the *pupil's* composing frequently. *Pupil's* is governed by the participial noun *composing*.*

NOTE.—The sign ('s) should be annexed to the word governed by the *participial noun* following it.

TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

This took place at our friend Sir Joshua Reynold's.

The manner of a young lady's employing herself usefully in reading, will be the subject of another paper.

Very little time was necessary for Johnson's concluding† a treaty with the book-seller.

He added an anecdote of Quin's relieving Thomson from prison.

He pathetically described the parent's and the son's misfortune.

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* The participle used as a noun, still retains its verbal properties, and may govern the objective case, or be modified by an adverb or adjunct, like the verb from which it is derived.

† A clause, or a part of a sentence, used as the subject of a verb, or as the object of a verb or preposition, when it contains a *verb* or a *participle*, may be called a SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE.

He reminded Dr. Johnson of Mr. Murphy's having paid him the highest compliment that ever was paid to a layman.

I dined with him at our friend Davies's.

I gave him an account of my having examined the chest of books which he had sent to me.

TO BE CORRECTED BY THE REMARKS UNDER RULE VIII.

Webster or Johnson's Dictionary. Washington and Taylor's courage. Bancroft or Prescott's History. Ferdinand, and Isabella's reign. Hyde's, Lord's, and Duren's bookstore. Mr. Murphy mentioned Dr. Johnson having a design to publish an edition of Cowley. I dined with him at Mr. Thrale. Fanciful people may talk of a mythology being amongst them. There is no danger of that complaint being made at present. The bishop's of Landaff excellent works. I will not, for David's thy Father's sake. Much depends on this rule being observed.

REMARK.

The use of the possessive case, in composing, is attended sometimes with harshness and obscurity, which may be avoided by employing the preposition *of*, or the expressions, *the property of, or belonging to;* as, This was my father and brother's farm;—better thus, this farm *belonged to*, or, *was the property of* my father and brother. They condemned the prodigal's, as he was called, extravagant conduct—it should be, they condemned the extravagant conduct of the prodigal, as he was called.

1. Change the following sentences into other forms which shall convey the same meaning.

Model.

This was the *king of England's* eldest son.
Changed. This was the eldest *son of the king of* England.

Sentences to be changed.

A mother's tenderness and a father's care, are nature's gifts for man's advantage. This was John, Robert and Charles's estate. Very little time was necessary for Johnson's concluding a treaty with the book-seller. This property was my father's, my brother's, and my uncle's. This was John Johnson's eldest son's estate. This was a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's.

COMPOSITION.

2. Fill the blanks with nouns or pronouns in the possessive case.

I bought goods at—. I have read—and—poetry, and—history of the United States. —and—occupation was that of merchants. He did not heed his —and—entreaties. The time of—making the experiment has arrived.

REVIEW.

1. What is the rule for the government of nouns or pronouns in the possessive case? 2. What is the sign of the possessive case? 3. When two or more nouns denote the joint owners of the same thing, to which is the sign annexed? 4. When can the noun be omitted which governs the possessive case? Give some examples. 5. When the possessive is governed by a participial clause, can the sign be properly omitted? 6. Repeat the rules and remarks for the government and use of the possessive case.

§ 117. OBJECTIVE CASE.

RULE IX.

The object of a transitive verb, in the active form, is put in the objective case; as, The sun imparts *warmth* to the *ground*.

NOTE.—Participles of transitive verbs in the active form, likewise govern the objective case.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Disappointment sinks the heart of man.
Foolish pursuits delight some persons.
A variety of pleasing objects charms the eye.
I have read your letter. I commend your diligence.
The President's speech is so important to the public, that I know you will be anxious to see it as early as possible.
I will resign my office and remain with you.

REMARK.

Some intransitive verbs are followed by an objective of kindred signification to their own; as, He dreamed *a dream*; let him die *the death*; to run *the race*; to sleep *the sleep* of *death*; to live *a life* of ease; he *went* his *way*.

NOTE 1.—Some other intransitive verbs are occasionally followed by an objective; as, To grate harsh *thunder*; he repented *his folly*.

NOTE 2.—The objective case is sometimes improperly used after certain transitive verbs in the *passive form*; as, The bishops *were allowed* their *seats*; I *was shown* a new *potato*; he *was forbid* the emperor's *presence*.

TO BE CORRECTED BY RULE IX.

Who did they send? He that is idle reprove. He and they we know. He invited my brother and I to examine his library. Ye hath he quickened. Who shall I call you? He who committed the offence, you should correct, not I who am innocent. He who is in fault I will chastise. Who shall I direct this letter to? Who will you vote for?

COMPOSITION.

1. Fill the blanks with words in the objective case.

The children made—a—to-day, and went with—to dine with my old— — you have often heard—mention. The children are still in good—and—, and are well pleased with their— —. You will learn from the—before this reaches —the— of things here. Mr. Howe's army is at [Chester] about fifteen—from the—.

2. Write three sentences each of which shall include one of the following words in the objective case.

Day. Night. Summer. Winter. Autumn.

SYNONYMES.

1. Write on the board or slate the synonymes of the following words.

2*	2	5	3	2
Casualty.	Caution.	Celerity.	Cessation.	Seclusion.

2. Put these words and their *synonymes*, in the objective case after a transitive verb or preposition; as, By some casualty, he was detained, &c.

RULE X.

Nouns which denote *time*, *quantity*, *measure*, *distance*, *value*, or *direction*, are often put in the objective case without a preposition; as, He is ten *years* old; the rule is a *foot* in length.†

NOTE.—In analyzing, such nouns with the adjectives joined to them are to be treated as adjuncts, modifying or limiting some other words in the sentence. Some grammarians prefer to have the preposition supplied in explaining the construction of such words. In some instances this is easily done in others it is difficult.

* The figures 2, 2, 5, 3, 2, denote how many other words have a like meaning; for example, casualty, has two synonymes, viz; *accident, contingency. Caution* has two, viz; *warning, admonition.*

† Before words of this description, the ellipsis of a preposition is obvious. But it is seldom proper to use the preposition before such words.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Congress has been in session three months.

NOTE.—Three months answers to the question *how long?* and modifies the predicate of the sentence; *months* is in the objective case without a preposition.

He was absent from his native country six years.
They excavated a pit twenty feet in depth.
One morning we walked out together.
Wednesday, November 1st., we left Paris.
The storm burst upon us three leagues from the land.
They traveled north, south, east and west.
The people looked this way and that way, but discovered no means of escape.

REMARK.

1. The word HOME after the verbs *come, go,* and the like, is generally in the objective case without a preposition; as, My intention is to come *home,* unless I receive a commission to St. James.

NOTE.—When an adjective or an article is joined to the word *home, north,* &c., the preposition is used; as, He has gone to his home.

REMARK 2.—The words *worth, like, near* and *nigh,* are followed by the objective case, without a preposition; as, He is *like* his *father.* He is worth a *million.* He lives *near* the *river.*

NOTE.—The preposition is sometimes used after *near, like,* and *nigh.*

RULE XI.

TWO OBJECTIVES.

Verbs signifying *to ask, to teach, to call, to pay, to allow, to make, to constitute,* and some others, are often followed by two objectives;* as,

He asked *me* a *question;* "and God called the *firmament Heaven;*" "God seems to have made *him what* he was." They chose or elected *him clerk. Simon,* he surnamed *Peter.*

NOTE 1.—The verb *cost* is sometimes followed by two objectives; as, It cost *me* much *labor.*

NOTE 2.—In many cases when the verb is followed by two objectives, the preposition *to,* is easily supplied; as, Give *me* some *drink;* that is, give *to* me; he offered *me* a *seat;* that is, *to* me.

REMARK 1.—Verbs signifying *to ask, teach, offer, promise, pay, allow,*

* A preposition is generally used before one of the objectives following the verbs *ask, teach, pay, allow,* and *promise,* and can easily be supplied when omitted. But the omission of the preposition in many instances after verbs of this class, is authorized by the best authors.

which in the active form have two objectives, retain one objective in the passive form; as, I was asked *a question;* he was taught *grammar;* great indulgence was offered *me.* I was allowed *great liberty.* A shop was promised *me.*

REMARK 2.—The preposition is often omitted before the objective case; as Wo is *me,* that is, *to* me.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Model.

SENTENCE. A wise man will teach his sons justice.

ANALYZE. *A wise man,* is the modified subject. Will teach his sons justice, is the modified predicate. The predicate *will teach* is modified, 1st, by its direct object, *sons,* 2d, by *justice,* which may be called the indirect object of teach; if the preposition *of* or *about* were supplied before justice, the expression *of justice* would be the adjunct of *will teach.*

PARSE.—*Sons* is a common noun, third person, plural, masculine gender, objective case, and the object of teach.

Justice is a common noun, third person, singular, neuter gender, objective case, and the indirect object of teach. *Teach* is followed by two objectives according to Rule XIII.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

In long journeys, ask your master leave to give ale to your horses. —*Swift.*

God called the light day, and the darkness he called night.

While they promise themselves liberty, they themselves are the servants of corruption.

He fashioned it with a graving tool, after he had made it a molten calf.

SPECIAL REMARK.

Any word, phrase, or sentence, can be used as a noun in the nominative or objective case; as, Examine the *why* and the *how.* There is an *if* in the way. *And* is a conjunction. The crime of *being a young man.*

§ 118. CASE INDEPENDENT.

The form of the independent case is usually that of the *nominative,* but its relations and office are quite different.

RULE XII.

See § 54, 6.

A noun joined with a participle, standing unconnected with the subject or predicate of a sentence, is in the case

absolute or independent; as, The *oration having been spoken*, the assembly was dismissed.*

NOTE 1.—The noun independent may have adjectives and modifying adjuncts.

NOTE 2.—In *analyzing*, the case absolute or independent, with the participle and other modifying words, may be called an abridged expression, which may be formed into a complete sentence, by substituting a verb for the participle, and supplying other necessary words; as, Tarquinius reigning, Pythagoras came into Italy. *Tarquinius reigning*, is an abridged expression, and is equivalent to *while Tarquinius was reigning*.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Model.

SENTENCE. *Mr. Welch's health being impaired, he was advised to try the effect of a warm climate.

ANALYZE. *He* is the subject; *was advised*, &c., is the modified predicate. *Mr. Welch's health being impaired*, is an abridged expression, equivalent to, *since Mr. Welch's health was impaired.*

PARSE. *Mr. Welch's* is a complex noun, third person, singular, possessive case, and governed by *health*. R. VIII.

Health is a common noun, third person, singular, and in the case independent, joined with the participle *being impaired*. Rule, "A *noun* joined with a *participle*," &c.

Being impaired is a present *passive participle* of the verb *to impair*, and belongs to *health*. The other words may be parsed according to previous models

Analyze and Parse.

The sun rising, the darkness disappears.

Jesus had conveyed himself away, the multitude being in that place.

We being exceedingly tossed, they lightened the ship.

Edwards walked along with us, I eagerly assisting to keep up the conversation.

Johnson appearing to be in a reverie, Mr. Edwards addressed himself to me.

RULE XIII.

Nouns and pronouns denoting persons or things *addressed*, and nouns in *abrupt* and *exclamatory* expressions, are in the case independent.

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* A noun having no grammatical connection with the subject or predicate of a sentence, when joined with a participle is usually said to be in the case *absolute*, but when it is the name of an object *addressed*, is said to be in the case *independent*. As either term indicates the fact that the noun is not grammatically connected with the leading parts of the sentence, it is deemed immaterial which term is employed.

EXAMPLES.

O light of Trojans and support of Troy! O sacred city! O valiant heroes! Religion! what treasure divine!

Your fathers!—where are they? and the prophets, do they live forever?

The name of a procession! what a great mixture of independent ideas of persons, habits, tapers, orders, motions, sounds, does it contain!

But a physician, although he be a slave, still it is necessary to obey him.

O happy we! Miserable they! Me miserable! O me! Ah me!

REMARKS.

Names, titles, captions, and *signatures,* standing unconnected, are abridged expressions, to which, in analyzing and parsing, such words can be added as are necessary to complete a sentence.

EXAMPLES.

The Spectator; that is, this book is entitled the Spectator. Rule V.; Chapter IV.; that is, this is Rule V., &c. Henry Martyn; that is, the memoir of Henry Martyn. *Spectator, Rule V., Chapter IV.,* are strictly parts of sentences, and can be parsed as nouns in the nominative after the verbs.

REVIEW.

1. What are the rules for nouns in the independent case? Give some examples under each. 2. In what case are the nouns in the following expressions? O liberty! O my country! Time! how few thy value weigh. Our *work* being finished, we will play. 3. Repeat the rule for the objective case; for two objectives. Give examples under each. 4. Repeat the rules for the nominative case; for the possessive case; for the objective case; for the independent case. 5. What rule is applicable to the nouns, in such expressions as the following; I am busy *every day;* he has been absent *six weeks; six rods* wide; *ten feet* deep; much every *way;* the book is worth a *dollar;* it cost *me money;* he is like his *father.*

§ 119. PRONOUNS.

RULE XIV.

Pronouns agree with the nouns, or words for which they

stand, in *gender*, *number* and *person*; as, *Thou*, *who* speakest; *they* went *their* way.

Review §§ 62, 100, 101, with all the remarks and exercises under them.

REMARKS.

1. Pronouns which refer to *two or more nouns* connected by *and*, must be in the plural number; as, George and Thomas excel in *their* studies.

NOTE.—When the nouns in a sentence refer to the *same person or thing*, or belong to different propositions, the pronoun agrees according to Rule XV.

2. Pronouns which refer to two or more *singular* nouns connected by *or* or *nor* must be in the singular number; as, Neither James nor John is diligent in his studies.

NOTE.—When the nouns connected are of different persons, the *first person* is preferred to the *second*, and the *second* to the third.

3. The pronoun *it* often refers to nouns without regard to *number*, *gender*, or *person*; to Infinitives, to clauses, and even to whole paragraphs.

4. The pronoun *whatever* or *whatsoever* is sometimes used for the sake of emphasis; as, No ground *whatever*; when used in this manner it may be treated as an adjective belonging to a noun understood; as, No prudence whatever, i.e., no prudence, *whatever* prudence may exist, can deviate from this scheme.

NOTE.—*It* is frequently redundant, or is used indefinitely; and when so used, it may be parsed in apposition with the Infinitive or clause following; as, It is the mark of a generous spirit to forgive injuries; the proper subject of the verb is, *to forgive injuries*, and *it* is redundant, or unnecessary to the sense; but such a usage is authorized by the best writers.

5. The pronouns *himself*, *itself*, *themselves*, &c., are used in the nominative or objective case, and are frequently a mere repetition for the sake of emphasis, and in many cases are to be parsed in apposition with some noun or pronoun expressed or understood; as, He *himself* said it.

6. *What* is also sometimes used adverbially in the sense of *partly*; as, *What* with the war; *what* with the sweat, &c.

TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

In *parsing the pronoun*, inquire, what does it stand in place of? how declined? how governed? what is the rule for its agreement? what for its government?

The little bill must be paid, but I confess it alarms me. The expense of my son here, is greater than I ever imagined. Although his company is almost all the pleasure I have in life, yet I should not have brought him, if I had known the expense.

The cookery, and the manner of living here, *which** you† know

* *Which* is in the objective case and governed by *dislike*.

† *You* stands in the place of Mrs. Adams, to whom the language was addressed.

Americans were taught by their masters to dislike, are more agreeable* to me than you can imagine.

It is the care of a very great part of mankind to conceal their indigence from the rest; they support themselves by temporary expedients, and every day is lost in contriving for the morrow.

Themselves have made themselves worthy to suffer it.

TO BE CORRECTED.

Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them upon Jacob.
One should not think too favorably of themselves.
The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure, as its chief good.
The council were divided in its sentiments.
The moon appears, but the light is not his own.
The men which seek wisdom will find him.
One cannot be too careful of their reputation.
My brother and I are employed in their proper business.
George and Charles are diligent in his studies.
Neither James nor John has gained to themselves much credit.

COMPOSITION.

The blanks are to be filled with pronouns.

There are twelve states — are adjacent to the Atlantic. Take — only son — lovest. Patience and industry will receive — reward. Youth — are inexperienced, often think more highly of — than — ought to think.

Write sentences which shall include in each, one or more of the following pronouns.

They.	He.	It.	Thee.	You.
Their.	His.	Its	Us.	Your.
Themselves.	Himself.	Itself.	Ourselves.	Yourself.
Who.	Which.	Whom.	That.	Whose.

REVIEW.

1. What is the general rule for the agreement of pronouns? Explain the meaning of this rule. 2. When two or more nouns are connected by *and*, in what number must the pronoun be which refers to them? If nouns are connected by *or* or *nor*, what must be the *number* of the pronoun referring to them? 3. Repeat the rules for the construction of the *relative*. 4. What kind of a pronoun is *what*? (§ 101, 2.) How is it treated in parsing? *Ans.* Generally, as a compound pronoun, equivalent to *that which* or *those which*.

§ 120. ADJECTIVES.

RULE XV.

Adjectives belong to nouns which they qualify or define; as, A *tall* tree, A *high* mountain.

* *Agreeable* is an adjective, agreeing with *cookery* and *manner*.

Review §§ 24, 90.

NOTE—Adjectives which denote but *one*, should be joined to *singular* nouns; those which denote more than one, should be joined to plural nouns; as, *This* man, *these* men, *two* birds, *one bird*.

NOTE.—A plural adjective is sometimes found with a singular noun; as, A fleet of *twenty* sail; forty head of cattle; but such expressions should not be imitated.

TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

The young blood of modern literature, has put new life into the literature of the dead languages.

All the features of a great heroic age,—from which European civilization dates, and political and domestic order take their rise,—stand forth in living reality.

The encumbered oar scarce leaves the hostile coast
Through purple billows and a floating host.

None were banished except the thirty tyrants.

I have not seen him these ten years.

That sort of books was a valuable present.

These studies were the delight of his declining years.

REMARKS.

1. Adjectives are frequently separated by intervening words from the nouns to which they belong; as, The day is *pleasant*. *Great* is the Lord. A river twenty rods *wide*.

2. Adjectives are used to modify Infinitives, parts of clauses, and whole propositions; as, To see the sun is *pleasant*; to advance was *difficult*; to retreat *hazardous*.

3. Adjectives are used to modify both the *action of the verb*, and its *subject*; as, The wind was blowing *fresh*; he grew *old* in the service of his country *

4. Adjectives are sometimes used to modify other adjectives; as, *Deep* blue, a *witch* hazle mineral rod, *pale* red.

NOTE.—Several adjectives are sometimes joined to a single noun; as, *Liverpool deep blue earthen* pitchers.

5. The adjective is often used alone, the noun with which it agrees being understood; as, *The brave, the righteous*.

NOTE.—The adjective is sometimes used indefinitely, without direct reference to any noun; as, To be *wise* and *good*, is to be *great* and *noble*. A noun however, can generally be supplied in such instances; as, For one to be wise, is for one to be *great*, &c.

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*Adjectives of this kind are treated by some grammarians as adverbs, or as adjectives qualifying the *noun only*. Neither way is according to the sense, for they show both manner and quality, and therefore refer to the subject and predicate.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

To die for one's country is sweet and becoming.
To restrain anger is excellent.
To excel in knowledge is honorable.
The flame burns bright and clear.
Keen blows the wind, and piercing is the cold.
A great many stars are visible in a clear night.
A light shineth in the path of the upright.

6. The expressions *two first, first two,* are both authorized by good usage.*

7. An adjective is sometimes used to modify a noun and another adjective; as, A *poor* old man.

8. Adjectives are sometimes improperly used for adverbs; as, *Miserable* poor, for *miserably* poor; *excellent* well, for *excellently* well; he behaved himself conformable to that great example; it should be *conformably* to.

He acted *agreeable* to my advice. It should be *agreeably* to, because *agreeably* shows the manner of acting; but, *Agreeable* to my promise *I now write,* is correct, as will appear by analyzing: *I now write, this* is agreeable to, &c.; *agreeable* does not show the manner of writing, but qualifies the clause, *I now write.*

NOTE.—Much care is necessary to avoid errors of this kind. The true meaning of the sentence should be sought by a careful and rigid analysis.

SENTENCES TO BE CORRECTED.

A new barrel of flour. A clear spring of water. A green load of wood. A new pair of boots. I have received them books which you sent me. I can never think so mean of him. They wandered about solitarily† and distressed. She reads proper, writes neat, and composes accurate. They lived conformable to the rules of prudence. He was such‡ an extravagant man, that he soon wasted his property. I never saw such large trees. Such a bad temper is seldom found. A tree fifty foot high. Twenty ton of hay. Two shilling a pound.

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*The question whether the numerals *two, three, four,* should stand before the words *first* or *last,* or whether *first* or *last* should stand before the numerals, does not appear to be settled by usage. There are good authorities on both sides. Grammarians generally favor the use of *first* and *last,* before the numeral. When objects are spoken of in *pairs, triplets,* &c., it is manifestly proper to place the numeral *last.*

† It should be *solitary;* an adverb is improperly used for an adjective.

‡ It should be, He was *so* extravagant a man; *such* is improperly used for *so.*

COMPOSITION.

1. The blanks are to be filled with descriptive adjectives, or adjectives used as nouns.

We had a —— and —— shower to-day. The —— are ——, but the —— are ——. His conduct is —— and —— his manners are ——. His example is —— and his whole demeanor is ——. If his life is spared, he will become a —— man and a —— citizen. Jane has plucked some —— flowers in the garden; how —— they smell; how —— the color of their petals.

SYNONYMES.

2. Compose six sentences, each of which shall include one or more of the following synonymous adjectives.

NOTE.—Compose as many sentences as there are adjectives.

ACTIVE, diligent, industrious, assiduous, laborious.
BOLD, fearless, intrepid, undaunted.
BEAUTIFUL, fine, handsome, pretty.
AGREEABLE, pleasant, pleasing.
AGREEABLE, conformable, suitable.
HOLY, pious, devout, religious.
HEAVY, burdensome, ponderous, weighty.
FORTUNATE, lucky, prosperous, successful.

§ 121. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.*

See § 94.

RULE XVI.

Pronominal adjectives limit the nouns to which they belong, or are used alone as pronouns; as, *This* day, *few* men, *both* men, *many* people, the *latter* day, *some* think, *few* come, &c.

REMARK.

Each other. One another.

These elliptical expressions may be explained as follows.

Righteousness and peace have kissed *each other*; that is, *each* has kissed the *other*.

We ought also to love *one another*; that is, *one* ought to love, &c.

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* This class of words in nearly every instance where they are used alone, admit of having a noun supplied; but as it would be obviously improper to supply a noun in some cases, it is better to treat them as pronouns when they are used alone.

When ye come together to eat, tarry *one* for *another;* it might be, for one another.

Exhort one another daily; let each exhort the other, &c.*

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

Pronominal Adjectives.

One day Alonzo made a discovery which startled him.

A great many people think that the sabbath ends at sunset.

The boy hoped he had made some impression.

You know very well that such an expedition, with such companions, will not be keeping holy the sabbath day.

Every feeling of gratitude is obliterated by one single interference with your wicked desires.

He soon learned, that it was one thing to see that his feelings were wrong, and another thing to feel right.

These omissions were more frequent than he imagined.

And the eyes of them both were opened.

Pronominal Adjectives used as Pronouns.

And he went after the man of Israel into the tent, and thrust both of them through.

The same is equally true of the past.

In the evening he was occupied with some one of these enjoyments, and the next day he was planning another.

This he could not but strongly shrink from.

Let others serve whom they will; as for me and my house, we will serve the Lord.

The dialogue between conscience and his heart was going on all the time; the latter finally prevailed.

Many shall come in my name, saying, I am Christ, and shall deceive many.

Jubal was the father of such as dwell in tents.

I cannot go beyond the word of the Lord my God, to do less or more.

Let each fulfil his part.

TO BE CORRECTED.

These kind of indulgences. Those sort of favors. Many a sorrow. I have been waiting this two hours.

REMARK.

The adjectives *this* and *these* refer to what is near or present; but the adjectives *that* and *those* refer to what is more remote or absent; as, *This* man, i.e.

* The expressions, *each other, one another,* are sometimes termed reciprocal pronouns.

the man who is present or near; *that* man, i.e. the man who is at a distance or absent.

TO BE CORRECTED.

Do you see those books lying on this table? These men that stand yonder are soldiers. That breeze is refreshing. Where are these books which you took from the desk?

§ 122. THE ARTICLE.

See § 92.

RULE XVII.

Articles define or limit the signification of the nouns to which they belong; as, *A* man, *an* hour, *the* horse.

NOTE 1.—*A* or *an* is joined to nouns of the singular number only; except when the noun is preceded by the adjective *few* or *many*; as, A *few* men; a *great* many men; or by some collective word; as, *A hundred* men, &c. *The* is joined to nouns of the singular or plural number.

NOTE 2.—When an article and a descriptive adjective belong to the same noun, the article stands first; as, *A* good man, *the* wise man.

EXCEPTION.—*A* sometimes stands *after* the adjective *many*; as, Full *many* a gem; many a flower.

NOTE 3.—The article *the* is frequently applied to adverbs in the comparative or superlative degree, and to adjectives used as nouns; as, The *more* I examine it, *the* better I like it; *the* least of the apostles; *a* few, *the* many, *the* good; I was astonished not *a little*.

NOTE 4.—When two or more adjectives or nouns refer to the same individual, the article generally stands before the first only; as, A great and good man; but it is sometimes repeated for the sake of emphasis; as, *The* wise, *the* virtuous, *the* patriotic Franklin.

NOTE 5.—Articles are often misapplied; as, The virtues like his are not easily acquired; the article should be omitted.

Show how the articles are misapplied in the following sentences.

Reason was given to a man to control his passions. A man is the noblest work of creation. He is a much better writer than a reader. The king has conferred on him a title of a duke.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

REMARKS.

1. The degrees of comparison are sometimes wrongly applied; as, He is, of *all others*, the most insensible; it should be, he is the most insensible *of all*; the vice of covetousness enters deepest

into the soul of man of any other; it should be, *deeper than any other*. The *weakest* of the two; it should be, the *weaker* of the two. The *elder* of the three; it should be, the *eldest* of the three.

1. The superlative is admissable where two things are compared, if there is no ambiguity from such a use; as, The *weakest* of the two, or the *weaker* of the two.

2. Some adjectives which denote fixed qualities do not admit of being compared; as *perfect, chief, round, square*, &c.

3. In expressing a comparison, if both nouns relate to the same thing, the article should not be prefixed to the latter; if to different things it should not be omitted; as, He is a much better general than statesman.

The word *such* is often improperly used for *so*; as, He was *such* an extravagant person; it should be *so* extravagant.

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED.

'Tis more easier to build two chimneys than to maintain one. The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries. The nightingale sings; hers is the most sweetest voice in the grove. The Most Highest hath created us for his glory and our own happiness. The Supreme Being is the most wisest, the most powerfulest, and the most best of beings. Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man, and should be his chief desire. His assertion was more true than that of his opponent; nay, the words of the latter were most untrue. His work is perfect; his brother's more perfect; and his father's the most perfect of all. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters. Profane swearing is, of all other vices, the most inexcusable. A talent of this kind would, perhaps, prove the likeliest of any other to succeed. He spoke with so much propriety, that I understood him the best of all the others who spoke on the subject. Such distinguished virtues seldom occur.

REVIEW.

1. What is the rule for the agreement of adjectives? What is an adjective? Does the term adjective include the article? What is an article? 2. Are adjectives ever separated from their nouns? Give some examples. 3. Can adjectives qualify *Infinitives, clauses* or *sentences*? Give examples. In the expressions, *that you are mistaken is certain*, which is the adjective? To what does it belong? 4. In the expression, *she looks pale*, which is the adjective? What does it appear to modify? Give other examples of the same kind. 5. Do adjectives modify other adjectives? Give some examples. Show wherein the following expressions are incorrect. *He was extreme prodigal; he writes neat; the stream flows rapid; the wind blows violent.* 7. Repeat the rule and notes for the *agreement* and *use* of the article. 8. Is there any difference in the following expressions? *few people, a few people. Few*, without

the article, is opposed to many, or denotes a comparison in respect to the number to which it is applied; as, Many are called, but few (comparatively) are chosen; but with the article it denotes *absolutely* a small number; as, A few people. The same is true of *little* and *a little*; as, *Little* attention (comparatively) was paid to my advice; a little, that is, a small degree of attention was paid, &c. 9. Show how the comparative and the superlative degrees are sometimes misapplied. 10. Why is it improper to say, *rounder, chiefest, more perfect*;

§ 133. VERBS.

THE INFINITIVE MODE.

RULE XVIII.

A verb in the Infinitive mode is generally used to limit the meaning of a *verb*, *noun*, or *adjective*; as, I hope *to succeed*; a desire *to improve*; anxious *to hear*.

REMARKS.

A verb in the Infinitive may also limit the meaning of

1. *As*, or *than*; as, He is so conceited *as* to *disdain* to have any thing to do with books; he desired nothing more *than to know* his imperfections.*

2. *Adverbs*; as, The rope is strong *enough to suspend* a ton. I know not *how to address* you.

3. *Prepositions*; as, What went ye out *for to see*?† my friend is *about* to take his departure.

4. The *Infinitive* is also used independently; as, *To say the least*, he has erred in judgment; but *to proceed* with our argument.

5. The Infinitive mode is often used as a *verbal noun*, in *the nominative case* to the verb, or in *the objective case* after verbs or prepositions.

6. When the Infinitive denotes *purpose* or *design*, it is frequently preceded by the phrase *in order*, but this phrase is often omitted.

SPECIAL RULE.

The Infinitive mode has an objective case before it when *that* is omitted; as, I believe *the sun* to be in the centre of the solar system; I know *him* to be a man of veracity.‡

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*The Infinitive after *as* or *than*, more properly limits a verb understood; as, He desired nothing more than *he desired* to know, &c.

†This form of expression is now obsolete; it occurs in the scriptures and in ancient writings.

‡This construction is far less common, and less elegant, in the English than in the Latin language; still it frequently occurs.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

He was willing to risk all, for the excitement of a new revolution.

He delivered his brother Alfonzo into their hands, to be recognized as the lawful heir of the crown.

Not far from the city of Avila, they caused a scaffold to be erected, of sufficient elevation to be easily seen from the surrounding country.

A manifesto was then read, exhibiting in glowing colors, the tyrannical conduct of the king, and the consequent determination to depose him.

It would be an unprofitable task to attempt to unravel all the fine-spun intrigues, by which the Marquis Villena contrived to defeat every attempt at an ultimate accommodation.

The abject mind of Henry was content to purchase repose, even by the most humiliating sacrifice.

Be not so greedy of popular applause, as to forget that the same breath which blows up a fire, may blow it out again.

I understand him better, than to suppose he will relinquish his design.

RULE XIX.

The verbs which follow *bid*, *dare*, *durst*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and their participles, are used in the Infinitive without the sign *to*,* as, He bid me go.

NOTE.—The verbs *watch*, *behold*, *know*, *observe*, *have*, *command*, *find*, and some others, are occasionally followed by the Infinitive without the sign *to*.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

The name of Henry makes them leave me desolate.

My followers' base and ignominious treasons make me betake me to my heels.

Dare any man be so bold to sound retreat or parley, when I command them kill?—*Shakspeare.*

Hark! I hear the herald angels say.

And the multitude wondered when they saw the lame walk and the blind see.

He had dared to think for himself.—*Coleridge.*

The haughty priests of learning banished from the schools, all who had dared draw water from the living fountain.—*Coleridge.*

I found my friend express much satisfaction for the bargains he had made.—*Steele.*

* The sign *to* is retained after these verbs when used in the passive form The sign is also sometimes retained after *make* and *dare*.

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED.

You ought not walk too hastily. I need not to solicit him to do a kind action. I have seen some very young persons to conduct themselves very indiscreetly. And the multitude wondered when they saw the lame to walk, and the blind to see.

§ 124. PARTICIPLES.

RULE XX.

1. Participles belong to nouns or pronouns, which they limit or explain.

2. Present and compound participles govern the same case as the verbs from which they are derived.

3. Participles are often governed by prepositions; as, I am weary *with hearing him.*

REMARKS.

1. Participles preceded by an article are called *participial nouns;* as, By the *preaching of repentance.*

2. Participles preceded by the article should always be followed by the preposition *of.* By the *preaching repentance* is incorrect; it should be *of* repentance.

3. Participles not preceded by the article, should not be followed by *of.* *Preaching of repentance* is incorrect; it should be *preaching repentance.*

4. Participles are sometimes used indefinitely, or without reference to any noun or pronoun expressed; as, Generally *speaking,* his conduct was very honorable.

5. Participles, like the verbs from which they are derived, have the *same case* after as before them; as, I was not conscious of my brother's being a drunkard; *drunkard* is in the *possessive case* without the sign, after being; or as some prefer, in apposition with brother.

6. Adjectives derived from verbs, and having the form of participles, are called *verbal* or *participial* adjectives.

7. The participle in *ing* is sometimes used passively; as, Forty and six years was this temple in *building;* not, in *being built.*

NOTE.—The form of expression, *is being built, is being committed,* &c., is almost universally condemned, by grammarians; but it is *sometimes* met with in respectable writers. It occurs most frequently in newspaper paragraphs, and in hasty compositions. See on this subject, *Worcester's Universal and Critical Dictionary.**

* Either of the expressions, *is building* or *is being built,* is objectionable, and it would be more consistent with analogy to avoid both forms, in writing and in speaking. See under same subject, Part I.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

And they, continuing daily with one accord in the temple, and breaking bread from house to house, did eat their meat with gladness and singleness of heart, praising God, and having favor with all the people.

He has left town for Ireland without taking leave of either of us.

Having a little time upon my hands, I could not think of bestowing it better than in writing an epistle to the Spectator.

I cannot forbear troubling you with a letter upon that subject.

We considered man as belonging to societies; societies as formed of different ranks, and different ranks distinguished by habits.

Having been very well entertained by your specimen of clubs, I shall take the liberty to furnish you with a brief account of such a one as you have not seen.

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED BY THE REMARKS.

By observing of truth. By the observing truth. By the sending proper information. Without the taking pains. Without taking of pains. The changing times and seasons, the removing and setting up kings, belong to Providence alone. Poverty turns one's thoughts too much upon the supplying one's wants. In tracing of his history, we discover little that is worthy of imitation.

COMPOSITION.

1. Write sentences, each of which shall include one or more of the following Infinitives.

To heap. To pile. To accumulate. To amass. To prefer. To choose. To give. To offer. To present.

2. Write sentences which shall include, in like manner, the following *verbs* followed by the *Infinitive* with or without the sign *to*, according to the previous rules.

Prepare. Prefer. Make. Hear. See. Desire. Dare.

3. Write sentences, in like manner, to include the following participles.

Having. Having received. Knowing. Receiving. Learning. Preventing. Hindering. Sending. Writing.

REVIEW.

1. Repeat the rules for the construction of the Infinitive mode. With what parts of speech can it be connected? 2. After what verbs is the sign of the

Infinitive omitted? 3. Repeat the rule for the agreement and government of the participle. 4. When is the preposition *of* to be used after the participle? When is it to be omitted? 5. Repeat the REMARKS under the general rules for the participles.

§ 125. MODES.

THE INDICATIVE MODE.

1. The Indicative mode is used after conjunctions which are positive and unconditional in their nature; as, He is esteemed *because* he is generous.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

2. The Subjunctive mode is used after conjunctions which imply doubt, contingency or condition; as, If he is expert in business, he will find employment. Suppose we admit this fact.

REMARKS.

3. In general, the form of the verb in the Subjunctive, is the same as that of the Indicative; but an elliptical form in the second and third person singular, is used in the following instances:

(*a*) *Future contingency* is expressed by the omission of the Indicative termination; as, If he go, for, if he *shall* go. Though he slay me, i.e. Though he *should* slay me. If thou injure another, thou wilt hurt thyself.

(*b*) *Lest* and *that* annexed to a command are followed by the elliptical form of the Subjunctive; as, Love not sleep lest thou come to poverty.

(*c*) *If* with *but* following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the elliptical form; as, If he *do* but *touch* the hills they shall smoke.

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED UNDER REMARK 3. (*a*.)

If he acquires riches, they will corrupt his mind, and be useless to others. Though he urges me yet more earnestly, I shall not comply, unless he advances more forcible reasons. I shall walk in the fields to-day, unless it rains. As the governess were present, the children behaved properly.

Examples to be corrected under Rem. 3. (*b. c.*)

Despise not any condition, lest it happens to be your own. Let him that is sanguine take heed lest he miscarries. Take care that.

thou breakest not any of the established rules. If he does but intimate his desire, it will be sufficient to produce obedience. At the time of his return, if he is but expert in the business, he will find employment. If he do but speak to display his abilities, he is unworthy of attention. If he be but in health, I am content.

4. But when future contingency is not denoted by the subjunctive clause, the Indicative form is used; as, If she *is* but sincere I am happy.

5. The verb Be has two forms in the Present, and in the Imperfect subjunctive; as, *Pres.* If I am. If I be. *Imp.* If I was. If I were.

Examples to be corrected under Rem. 4 and 5.

If thou have promised, be faithful to thy engagement. Though he have proved his right to submission, he is too generous to exact it. Unless he have improved, he is unfit for the office. If thou had succeeded, perhaps thou would not be the happier for it. Though thou did injure him, he harbors no resentment. Was he ever so great and opulent, this conduct would debase him. Was I to enumerate all her virtues, it would look like flattery. Though I was perfect, yet I would not presume. Unless thou can fairly support the cause, give it up honorably. Though thou might have foreseen the danger, thou could not have avoided it.

The form, *If I be*, which properly belongs to the ancient style, is used by modern writers, when used at all, in reference to *future time*.

The form, *If I were*, is conditional, and generally implies a negative, or with the adverb *not*, implies an affirmation; as, If *I were not* Alexander, I would be Diogenes. If I *were* now in health, I should feel grateful indeed. If he *were* treated with kindness, he *would* not be ungrateful.

These sentences imply that, that which is supposed is not true, but if it were true, some other action would take place; hence the Imperfect tense of the Potential mode should be used after the responding clause.*

NOTE.—In analyzing compound sentences in which one of the clauses is conditional or subjunctive, the one which is preceded by the conjunction is called the dependent clause, the other the *leading clause*.

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* The conditional form of the Subjunctive of the verb *be*, does not in all cases imply a negative; but on the contrary it sometimes expresses an affirmative; as, If a hereditary title *were* to be respected, Mary possessed it.—*Macaulay*. A strong affirmation is implied in the conditional clause of this sentence.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

In parsing, the learner should tell to which form of the Subjunctive the verb belongs.

If he acquire riches, they will corrupt his mind.
Whether he improves or not, I cannot determine.
Unless the accountant deceives me, my estate is considerably improved.
Though he fall, he shall not be utterly cast down.
Whether he thinks as he speaks, time will discover.

§ 126. TENSES.

RULE XXI.

In the use of the tenses, a proper regard should be paid to their forms and connections.

Their Forms.

I *come* is very improperly used for I *came*.
I *done* is very improperly used for I *did*.
I *begun* is very improperly used for I *began*.

Done and *begun* are perfect participles, which are improperly used for the imperfect tense.

The river *has froze* over; it should be *has frozen*.
The school *has began*; it should be, *has begun*.
The horse was drove hard; it should be, *was driven*.
The thief has stole my watch; it should be, *has stolen*.

Froze, began, drove, stole, are forms of the Imperfect tense, which are improperly used for the perfect participles, *frozen, begun, driven*, &c.

Their Connection.

Incorrect.	*Corrected.*
I should be glad if he will write.	*would* write.
I *have* completed the task two days ago.	I *completed*.
They have resided in Italy till two months ago.	They *resided*.
His style has formerly been admired.	*was formerly admired*.
The next year's day, I shall be at school six months.	I *shall have been*.
After we *visited* London we returned content and thankful, to our retired habitation.	After *we had visited* London, &c.

Sit, set, lie, lay.

The verbs *sit* and *lie* are often confounded with *set* and *lay*.

The verb *to sit* signifies "to repose on a seat." Its principal parts are, PRES. sit; IMPER. sat; PERF. PART. sat.

The verb *to set*, when transitive, signifies "to place." The principal parts

are, PRES. set; IMP. set; PERF. PART. set. This verb is also used intransitively; as, The sun sets, the moon has set.

The verb *to lie* signifies "to repose," "to lie down." Its principal parts are, PRES. lie; IMP. lay; PERF. PART. lain. There is also a regular verb *lie*, which signifies to utter a falsehood.

The verb *to lay* signifies "to place." Its principal parts are, PRES. lay; IMP. laid; PERF. PART. laid.

EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED.

Let the reason be given for the correction made in each instance.

They laid down to rest. A beggar was setting by the way side. A stone was laying in the street. The tree has laid there several days. Let us set down. It is injurious to health to set up late nights. He set up, and began to speak. Sin layeth at the door.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE MODE.

1. As a verb in the Infinitive mode is strictly nothing more than a verbal noun, that is, the name of some action, it will be easy to determine which tense of the Infinitive the sense requires, by inquiring whether the action expressed by the Infinitive refers to past, present, or future time; for example:

I intended to write, i.e., I intended writing; not, I intended *to have written*, or having written, for this expression would refer the act to a time before there was an *intention* to act.

I hoped to see you; not *to have seen* you.

I commanded him *to do* it; not, *to have done* it; i.e., *the doing* would not be before the command. Hence, in regard to verbs of this class the following rule may be observed for the use of the Infinitive.

SPECIAL RULE.

2. After verbs signifying *to hope, to intend, to desire, to command*, and the like, the present tense of the Infinitive should be used; as, I hoped *to see* you; I desired *to hear* from my friend.

After verbs of other significations, a strict regard should be paid to the time of the action denoted by the Infinitive, compared with the tense or time of the verb on which it depends.

TO BE CORRECTED.

It will give our parents much pain *to have heard* of your misconduct. They desired *to have seen* you respected and esteemed, but

alas! their hopes *have been* unexpectedly cut off. They intended *to have devoted* you to the service of your country and mankind; but when the sad intelligence *reaches* them, how *would* they sink under the burden of their disappointment, and how will they weep bitter tears, when they *have reflected* upon the happiness they *have anticipated*, from your advancement to an honorable condition in life. I expected *to have seen* them before the news *should have reached* them, but urgent duties *will have prevented*.

NOTE.—Mistakes, or solecisms, in the use of the modes and tenses, are very common, even in respectable writers, and especially so in hasty composition and conversation. No very definite rules can be given, except such as are found in the definitions of the modes and tenses, as a guide to propriety in using them.

§ 127. ADVERBS.

RULE XXII.

Adverbs generally modify *verbs*, *participles*, *adjectives*, and *other adverbs*.

REMARKS.

1. Adverbs are generally placed near the words which they modify; as, He conducts *foolishly*; he is *very* sick; *right* onward.

2. Adverbs are sometimes used for adjectives; as, The *then* ministry; the *above* discourse;* *to-morrow* morning; the men *only*.

NOTE.—When *only* refers to a noun, it should be placed near it, to avoid ambiguity.

3. Adverbs are sometimes used as nouns; as, Until *now*; yet a *little while*.

4. *From* is sometimes *unnecessarily* used before *whence*, *thence*, *hence*; as, *From* whence art thou, for *whence*, &c.

5. The adverb *there* often stands at the beginning of a sentence, without particular reference to any other word; as, *There* are many who believe, &c.

6. The word modified by the verb is sometimes omitted; as, I'll *hence* to London. Such an ellipsis is only to be tolerated in poetry.

7. Two negatives in the same clause are equivalent to an affirmative; as, *Nor* did they *not* perceive, i.e. *they did perceive*.

8. An adverb sometimes modifies the word *a*, used in the sense of *one*; as, Almost *a* year, not *a* dollar.

9. The word *but* in the sense of *only* is used as an adverb; as, All are *but* parts of one stupendous whole; I have *but* one request to make.

10. *As* in the sense of *so*, is an adverb; as, *As* well; *as* much.

11. The adverb *now* frequently stands at the beginning of paragraphs in ar-

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*Such expressions, though not destitute of authority, are exceedingly inelegant and irreconcilable with authority.—*Crombie*.

gumentative and familiar discourse, as a *general connective*, without modifying any particular word; as, *Now*, it is evident, &c.

12. A preposition with its object is sometimes equivalent to an adverb, as, *in truth*, for truly, &c.

13. Adverbs are not unfrequently absolute; that is, they qualify no particular word, but usually refer to the whole preceding sentence; as, *Yes, no, therefore, then, however, &c.*, and not unfrequently they are expletives, that is, qualify nothing; as, *Why, well, there, &c.*

14. Adverbs sometimes modify *prepositions, adjuncts, phrases*, and *entire clauses*; as, *Just* below the surface; *nearly* round the world; I hear *almost* in vain; *independently* of these considerations.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

There,* there,* now we have had enough for one lecture.

Well,* sir, said I, how did you like little Miss? I hope she was fine enough.

Alas! madam, said he, one day, how few books are there, of which one ever can possibly arrive at the last page.—*Johnson.*

Well, he brought him home, and reared him at the then Lord Valdez's cost.—*Coleridge.*

The wall tottered, and had well nigh fallen right on their heads. —*Id.*

And not a† vanity is given in vain.

The women and children only, were saved from the conflagration.

Little children, yet a little while I am with you.

Stoop down, my thoughts, that used to rise
Converse a while with death.

He then, having received the sop, went immediately out.

COMPOSITION.

1. Compose three or more sentences, each of which shall include one of the following adverbs.

Here.	Now.	Soon.	No. Yes.
Hence.	Then.	Never.	Perhaps.
Thence.	While.	Seldom.	Elsewhere.
Whence.	Where.	Almost.	Wherefore.

2. Compose sentences, using *while* and *now* as nouns, and *yesterday, to-morrow*, and *above* as adjectives.

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*These adverbs are used independently.

†Not modifies *a*, which is used in the sense of *one*.

§ 128. PREPOSITIONS.

RULE XXIII.

Prepositions govern the objective case.

REMARKS.

1. *But*, in the sense of except, appears sometimes to be used as a preposition; as, All but *one*.

NOTE.—*Than* is sometimes followed by the objectives *whom* and *which*; as, Alfred, *than whom*, &c. Beelzebub, *than*, *whom*, &c.

2. The article *a* is in a few instances employed in the sense of a preposition; as, Simon Peter said, I go *a* [to] fishing. It is also used for *at*.

3. Two or more words combined, are sometimes treated as a compound preposition; as, *According to, in respect to, in regard to, from above, from below, as to, as for, over against, instead of, out of, &c.*

4. The words *allowing, considering, concerning, during, respecting, supposing, notwithstanding, excepting, past*, are sometimes termed *verbal prepositions*;* and also, *save* and *except*.

5. Some of the prepositions are occasionally used as adverbs; the noun however, may generally be supplied.

6. Prepositions sometimes govern a participial clause, or a simple sentence.

COMPOSITION.

Let one of the following expressions form a part of each sentence to be composed.

NOTE.—The verbs may be used in any *tense* or *mode*, *number* or *person*.

Abandoned to— abhorrence of— abound in— absent from— abstain from— beguile of—.

Careful of— careless about— careless of— differ from— discourage from— encouragement to—.

Familiar with— interfere with— influence on— impatient at— inspection into— partiality to—.

Prejudice against— provide for— suitable to— participate in— conscious of— correspond to— correspond with—.

Derogate from— derogation to— contiguous to— bereave of— difficulty in— differ with—.

Disappointed of— discouragement to— expert in— influence over— influence with— connect with—.

Impatient for— inspection over— partiality for— provide with— provide against— suitable for— peculiar to—.

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* Some grammarians prefer to treat this class of words as participles, under all circumstances, agreeing with the whole sentence, or some word understood; and *save* and *except* as verbs in the imperative mode.

REVIEW.

1. Repeat the general rule for adverbs. 2. With what parts of speech can adverbs be connected? 3. What is the use of adverbs? Do they govern cases? Do they connect clauses? 4. Do adverbs ever modify prepositions? Nouns? Articles? 5. What adverbs are sometimes used independently? 6. Rule for prepositions? Remarks? 7. In what sense is *but* used as a preposition? As an adverb? Is *but* ever an adjective? A conjunction? 8. What participles and verbs are sometimes considered as prepositions? Can they be parsed otherwise than as prepositions?

§ 129. CONJUNCTIONS.

RULE XXIV.

Conjunctions connect words, phrases, adjuncts or sentences; as, He reads *and* writes. I sought the Lord *and* he heard me.

SPECIAL REMARK.

Conjunctions connect nouns in the same case, and usually verbs in the same mode and tense.

Examples to be corrected under the Special Remark.

Professing regard, and to act differently, discovers a base mind. If he understand the subject, and attends to it industriously, he can scarcely fail of success. If a man have a hundred sheep, and one of them is gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains and seeketh that which is gone astray? To be moderate in our views, and proceeding temperately in pursuit of them, is the best way to insure success.

REMARKS.

1. The conjunctions *if, though, except, unless* and *lest*, are signs of the *subjunctive mode.*

NOTE.—*If* is often omitted before the subjunctive; as, *Had* I the wings of a dove, for, *if* I had; *could* I but stand, for, *if* I could, &c.; *were* there no difference, for, *if there were.*

2. The following are corresponding conjunctions:

Though—yet.	Neither—nor.	So—as.
Whether—or.	So—that.	As—so.
Either—or.	As—as.	Both—and.

In composing, these should follow each other in the order given; *Neither* true *or* just; it should be, Neither true *nor* just. In like manner *or* should follow *either*; *yet* should follow *though*, &c.

3. *As* is sometimes used in the sense of a relative pronoun; as, Such a scheme *as* I have seen; *as* may be parsed in the *objective* after *seen*. The ellipsis of *that which*, *those which*, &c., may however be supplied; then, *as* should be treated as a conjunction.

4. The phrases *as if*, *as though*, *what if*, and *what though*, are elliptical. An intervening clause may be supplied.

5. There are some abridged expressions, which it is convenient to call *compound connectives;* such as, *As well as*, *inasmuch as*, *in order that*, *but that*, &c.; these, however, can generally be analyzed intelligibly, and each may be parsed separately, by supplying such words as the sense will allow.

6. The word *both** may be used as a *conjunction*, as an *adjective*, or as a *pronoun*.

7. *That* may be used as a *conjunction*, as an *adjective*, or as a *relative* pronoun.

8. Conjunctions are often improperly used, both singly and in pairs.

EXERCISE.

There is no man so sanguine, who did not apprehend some ill consequences; it should be, *as not to apprehend*, &c., because, according to Remark 2, *so* and *as* are corresponding conjunctions or correlatives.

TO BE CORRECTED.

There is no man so miserable, who does not enjoy something. *Neither* he or *I* am able to do it. See Rem. 2. I know not *if* it was James *or* his brother that performed the work. He asked me *if* I would call and see his brother; it should be *whether*. I asked him *if* he knew me. The judge asked the foreman if the prisoner was guilty or not guilty.

The word *both* can refer to only two persons, things, or statements, following it. And both men and women and children ran out to meet him. *Both* is improperly used before *men*. Why?

I have travelled both in Europe, in France, and in America.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED AND PARSED.

All this is done, *and* all this expenditure is incurred.

(This is a compound sentence, consisting of two simple sentences; *and* connects them.)

In order to produce it now, we diminish the productiveness of

* By a careful analysis it may be found that *both* is in all cases an adjective, and *that* an adjective or relative, but in most grammars there are other offices assigned them.

all other labor. *And* the only effect is to postpone it to a still more distant period.

(Here are two distinct sentences, the general train of thought being connected by *and*, standing at the beginning of the *second*, after the period.)

Different men are constituted by the Creator with different aptitudes for different pursuits, *and* with different dispositions towards those pursuits.—*Wayland.*

A great public *as well as* private advantage, arises from every one's devoting himself to that occupation which he prefers, and for which he is specially fitted.—*Id.*

As well as, is a compound connective, and joins *public* and *private.*

It is also evident *that*, by each nation's devoting itself to that branch of production for which it has the greatest facilities, either original or acquired, its own happiness will be better promoted, and a greater amount of production created, *than* in any other manner.—*Id.*

This compound sentence consists of four members or clauses. *That* connects the clause, *it is also evident*, &c., with the clause, *its own happiness will be promoted;* of which the phrase, *by each*, &c., is an adjunct; *and* connects the clause following it with the one before; *than* connects *will be created* and *will be promoted* understood, to the same words expressed; *for which*, &c., is a *relative* clause, and refers to production. *Either—or*, are corresponding conjunctions and connect *original* and *acquired.*

§ 130. INTERJECTIONS.

RULE XXV.

Interjections have no governing power, and have no dependence on other words in construction.

REMARKS.

1. Interjections often stand before nouns independent, and before whole clauses; as, O virtue! O for a lodge in some vast wilderness! Some words must be supplied before such clauses to complete the sentence; as, O how I long for a lodge, &c.

2. "Ah me!" "Ah sinful nation!" "They have forsaken the Lord!" "Oh me!" Such expressions may be considered elliptical, and words can be supplied to make a complete sentence; as, Ah *pity* me, Ah *this* is a sinful nation.

Oh *save* me; or they may be treated as the case independent, which is not necessarily confined to the nominative form.

3. Certain verbs are used in exclamations; as, Behold! how good and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity! So in like manner, Hush! Hark! See!

4. The word *what* is sometimes used to denote *surprise* or *wonder;* as, What! could ye not watch with me one hour? The phrase *what ho!* may be parsed also as an interjection.

NOTE.—It is not necessary to consider the verbs mentioned above and the pronoun *what* as interjections; for in all such broken expressions, governing words can be supplied; as, What! [say you,] or what [does this mean.] Hark! [ye.] See! [thou.]

§ 131. ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

ORDER TO BE OBSERVED.

1. Point out the leading clause, or the one on which the other clauses depend. This may be known by its not having any connecting word immediately preceding it.
2. Point out the clause or clauses connected with the leading clause.
3. Show how the remaining clauses are connected with each other.
4. Analyze each of the simple members, beginning with the leading clause.
5. Examine and parse each word separately, giving its class, variations, and rule of construction.

Model of Analyzing a compound sentence, consisting of several clauses or simple sentences.

If you listen to the complaints of a forsaken lover, you observe that he insists largely on the pleasures which he enjoyed or hoped to enjoy, and on the perfection of the object of his desires.—*Burke.*

This may be resolved into six clauses or simple sentences.

1. *You observe,* is the *leading* clause.
2. *If you listen to the complaints of a forsaken lover,* is a conditional clause connected with the *first* by *if.*
3. *That he insists largely on the pleasures,* is a clause connected by *that* with the first, viz: *you observed.*
4. *Which he enjoyed,* is a relative clause, and refers to *pleasures.*
5. *Or* [which he] *hoped to enjoy,* is connected with enjoyed by *or.*
6. *And* [he insists largely] *on the perfection, &c.* This clause completed by the insertion of *insists largely,* is connected with the third, viz: *he insists, &c.* by the conjunction *and.*

NOTE.—Each of the simple clauses may now be analyzed and parsed, according to directions given in Part I.

Let the following compound sentences be analyzed and parsed.

1. Ignorant men are indolent, because they know neither the re-

sults that may be accomplished, nor the benefits that may be secured by industry.—*Wayland.*

Of how many simple sentences composed? Which is the independent member?

2. If his enemies, however, committed great errors, it is altogether owing to Gonsalvo, that he was in a situation to take advantage of them.—*Prescott.*

3. When Napoleon seized the reins of power in France, he found the institution of civilization and the bonds of society dissolved to an extent of which the previous history of the world afforded no example.—*Alison.*

Composed of three members.

Napoleon seized the reins of France.
He found, &c. to an extent. These are connected by the adverb *when.*
The previous history of the world afforded no example, is a relative clause, connected by *which* with the clause preceding, and has immediate reference to the word *extent.*

4. The mother who welcomes you is a widow, and the daily labor of her hands procures for her all that is necessary for her wants, and much besides, which she enjoys highly as luxuries. Her bright brass lamps which she toiled several days to earn, and the plain rocking chair in the corner, are, to her, as much, and perhaps far more, than your tall astral, crowned with its cut glass shade, or your splended ottoman.—*Abbott.*

§ 132. GENERAL EXERCISES ON THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

I.

[Instances in which the same words are used in different offices, or as different parts of speech.]

Calm was the day, and the scene delightful. We may expect a *calm* after a storm. To prevent passion is easier than *to calm* it.

Better is a *little*, with content, than a great deal, with anxiety. The gay and dissolute think *little* of the miseries which are stealing softly after them. A *little* attention will rectify some errors.

Though he is out of danger, he is *still* afraid. He labored to *still* the tumult. *Still* waters are commonly the deepest.

Damp air is unwholesome. Guilt often casts a *damp* over our sprightliest hours. Soft bodies *damp* the sound much more than hard ones.

Though she is rich and fair, *yet* she is not amiable. They are *yet* young, and must suspend their judgment *yet* a while.

Many persons are better than we suppose them to be. The *few*

and the *many* have their prepossessions. *Few* days pass without some clouds.

The *hail* was very destructive. *Hail!* virtue! thou source of every good. We *hail* you as friends.

Have you seen the book *that* I purchased yesterday? Give me *that* book. I study *that* I may improve.

A new broom *sweeps* better than an old one. The boatmen labored at the *sweeps* all day.

We had been to the *fair*, and seen a *fair* lady. His lot is hard but *fair*.

Much money is corrupting. Think *much* and speak little. He has seen *much* of the world, and been *much* caressed.

His years are *more* than hers; but he has not more knowledge. The *more* we are blessed, the *more* grateful we should be. The desire of getting *more* is rarely satisfied.

He has *equal* knowledge, but *inferior* judgment. She is his *inferior* in sense, but his *equal* in prudence.

Every being loves its *like*. We must make a *like* space between the lines. Behave yourslves *like* men. We are too apt *to like* pernicious company. He may go or stay as he *likes*.

They strive *to* learn. He goes *to* and fro. *To* his wisdom we owe our privilege. The proportion is ten *to* one.

He has served them with his *utmost* ability. When we do our *utmost*, no more is required.

He is esteemed *both* on his own account, and on that of his parents. *Both* of them deserve praise.

Yesterday was a fine day. I rode out *yesterday*. I shall write *to-morrow*. *To-morrow* may be brighter than *to-day*. We shall arrive *to-day*.

You must *either* go or stay, and you may do *either*, as you please.

Behold! how pleasant it is to see the sun. I *behold* men as trees, walking.

II.

§ 133. *A collection of idiomatic or peculiar expressions, difficult to analyze and parse, taken from writers of standard authority, and explained by marginal references or notes.*

NOTE.—Rules and Remarks in Part III. are referred to in the margin.

As. As if. So as.

In singing *as* in piping you excel.—*Dryden.*

I live *as* I did, I think *as* I did, I love you *as* I did.—*Swift.*

Mad *as* I was, I could not bear his fate with silent grief.—*Dryden.*

Darest thou be[1] *as*[2] good *as* thy word now.—*Shakspeare.*

As[3] thou art a prince I fear thee.—*Id.*

[1] Rule XIX. [2] Rule XXII, Rem. 10. [3] Rule XXIV.

The objections that are caused against it *as*[3] a tragedy, are as follow.

The noise pursues me wheresoe'er I go

As fate sought only me.—*Dryden.*

At either end it whistled *as* it flew.—*Dryden.*

He answered their questions *as*[5] *if* it were a matter that needed it.—*Locke.*

Each man's mind has some peculiarity *as*[1] *well as*[6] his face.—*Id.*

These should be gently treated *as*[5] *though* we expected to be in their condition.—*Sharp.*

Sempronious is *as* brave a man *as* Cato.

As[7] *for* the rest of those who have written against me, they deserve not the least notice.—*Dryden.*

Is it not every man's interest, that there should be *such* a government of the world *as*[8] designs our happiness.[2]—*Tillotson.*

A bottle swinging at each side, *as* hath been said or sung.—*Cowper.*

They pretend, in general, to great refinements, *as to*[7] what regards christianity.—*Addison.*

What. Whatever. Whatsoever.

In these cases we examine the why, the *what*[9] and the how of things.

Let them say *what*[10] they will, she will do *what* she lists.—*Drayton.*

Mark *what*[10] it is, his mind aims at in this question, and not *what* words he expresses.—*Locke.*

What! [11] canst thou not bear with me half an hour?—*Sharp.*

What[12] if I advance an invention of my own to supply the defect of our new writers.—*Dryden.*

What[12] *though* none live my innocence to tell?
Then balmy sleep had charmed my eye to rest
What time the morn mysterious visions bring.—*Pope.*

The enemy having his country wasted, *what*[13] by himself and *what*[13] by the soldiers, findeth succor in no places.—*Spenser.*

Whatever is read, differs from what is repeated.—*Swift.*

Whatsoever is first in the invention, is last in the execution.—*Hammond.*

What ho![11] thou genius of the clime, *what ho!*—*Dryden.*

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[1] Rule XXII, Rem. 10.
[2] Rule XXIV.
[3] Rule I, Rem. 3.
[4] Rule IV, Rem. 5.
[5] Rule XXIV, Rem. 4.
[6] Rule XXIV, Rem. 5.
[7] Rule XXIII, Rem. 3.
[8] Rule XXIV, Rem. 3.
[9] Rule XI, Spec. Rem. § 100.
[10] Rule XXV, Rem. 4.
[11] Rule XXV, Rem. 4.
[12] i. e. What, [would you say] What may be governed by some word understood.
[13] Rule XIV, Rem. 6.

Himself. Itself. So, &c. See Comp. Pron. § 101.

He *himself*[1] returned again. David hid *himself* in the field.

With shame he remembers while *himself* was one of the same herd, *himself* the same had done.—*Denham.*

I viewed in my mind *so*[2] far as I was able, the beginning and progress of a rising world.

We think our fathers fools, *so* wise we're grown,
Our wiser sons no doubt will think us so.

Deliver us from the nauseous repetition of As and So, which some *so so*[3] writers, I may call them *so*, are continually sounding in our ears.—*Felton.*

O, *so*, and had you a counsel of ladies too?

When. While. Then.

Kings may take their advantage when and how they list.

I was adopted heir by his consent,
Since *when*[4] his oath is broke.—*Shakspeare.*

Pausing *a while*,[5] thus to herself she mused.—*Milton.*

One *while* we thought him innocent.—*Ben Johnson.*

Use your memory; you will sensibly experience a gradual improvement, *while* you take care not to overload it.

The *then*[6] bishop of London, Dr. Laud, attended on his majesty throughout that whole journey.—*Clarendon.*

Thee *then*[7] a boy within my arms I laid.—*Dryden.*

Till *then* who knew the force of those dire dreams.—*Milton.*

That. Both. See Rule XXIV, Rem. 6 and 7.

He wins me by *that* means I told you.—*Shakspeare.*

What is *that* to us? See thou to *that*.—*Matthew.*

I'll know your business, *that* I will.—*Shakspeare.*

Treat it kindly *that* it may
Wish with us at least to stay.—*Cowley.*

O *that* those lips had language!—*Cowper.*

And the next day, *both*[8] morning and afternoon, he was kept by our party.

Each other. One another. See Rule XVI.

Lovliest of women! heaven is in thy soul, beauty and virtue shine forever about you, bright'ning *each other!* Thou art all divine!—*Addison.*

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[1] Rule XIV, Rem. 5. [2] Rule XXII. [3] Rule XV. [4] Rule XXII, Rem. 3. [5] Rules XXII. and X. [6] Rule XXII, Rem. [7] Rule XXII. [8] Rule XX, Rem. 6. *Both* in this sentence would be considered a corresponding conjunction by most grammarians; but if the sentence is analyzed carefully, it will be seen that *both* refers to the periods of time, viz: he was kept by our party, in both parts of the day, *in the morning*, and in *the evening*. *Both*, therefore, is strictly an adjective. It may not however be worth while to deviate from the usual method of disposing of it.

The storm beats the trees against one another.—*Johnson.*

This is the message that ye heard from the beginning, that we should love one another.—*John.*

Beloved, let us love one another.—*Id.*

Save. But.*

All the conspirators *save* only he,
Did that they did in envy of great Cæsar.—*Shakspeare.*

Night shades the groves, and all in silence lie,
All *save* the mournful Philomel and I.—*Young.*

He that is washed needeth not, *save* to wash his feet.

And all desisted, all save him alone.—*Wadsworth.*

Who can it be, ye perjured Gods, *but* Lycon?

For who *but* he who arched the skies,
Could raise the daisy's purple bud?

The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all *but* him had fled.—*Hemans.*

III.

FALSE SYNTAX, OR EXAMPLES TO BE CORRECTED ACCORDING TO PREVIOUS RULES OF SYNTAX.

I admire the generous sympathy of Lafayette, he who befriended America.

The tomb we visited, was Washington's, the man who is the boast and pride of America.

They slew Varus, he that was mentioned before.

Him it is whom they persecuted.

Whom do you think it is?

Who do you think it to be?

It was him that said it, not I.

Was it him of whom you spake?

Man, though he has a great variety of thoughts, yet they are all within his own breast.

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* The words *save* and *but*, when, in the sense of "except," or "not including," they are followed by an objective case, are considered prepositions.

When used in the sense of *except*, they are more commonly followed by a nominative, or by an entire clause; and in this case they do the office of a connective, and are termed *conjunctions*.

The word *save* is by some considered a verb in the Imperative in all connections. But this word, and nearly all the conjunctions and prepositions, appear to have lost their original *verbal* power, and are now used as connectives to show the relations of words or sentences, rather than to express the action of a subject.

Trouble, though it may be long delayed, yet it will surely come.
There is a great many different ways of accumulating wealth.
Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons.
What avails the best sentiments, if persons do not live suitably to them?
Thou who art the Author of life can restore it.
There is many occasions in life in which silence and simplicity is true wisdom.
Great pains was taken to reconcile the parties. [This is right.]

NOTE.—According to the best usage, the word pains in the sense of labor, trouble, &c., though of a plural form, is joined with a singular verb; as, The pains they had taken *was* very great.—*Clarendon.* No pains is taken.—*Pope.* See Worcester's Dictionary.

He need not proceed in such haste. [right.]
He dare not touch a hair of Catiline. [right.]
He dare him to the trial. [wrong.]
He need our sympathy. [wrong.]

NOTE.—The verbs *need* and *dare*, are used both in a transitive and intransitive sense. When they are intransitive, good usage authorizes the plural form with nouns in the singular.

To live soberly and piously are required of all.
What signifies the counsel and care of teachers?
One, added to nineteen, make twenty.
Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices.
In unity consists the welfare and security of society.
One or both of the scholars was present at the transaction.
The deceitfulness of riches, or the cares of life, has choked the seeds of virtue in many a promising mind.
The people rejoices in that which should give them sorrow.
The British parliament are composed of king, lords and commons.
The time of William making the experiment.
Such will ever be the effect of youth associating with vicious companions.
Who have I reason to esteem so highly as you?
Ye who are dead hath he quickened.
And he that was dead set up and began to speak.
We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.
I always intended to have rewarded my son.
He appeared to have been a man of letters.
It was a pleasure to have received this approbation.
They whom he had most injured, he had the greatest reason to love. Who shall I call you?
I am not recommending these kind of sufferings.
By this mean, he had them more at vantage.
There is no mean of escaping the persecution.

And with this amend he was content.

Peace of mind is an honorable amend for the sacrifices of self-interest.

NOTE.—The word *means* in the sense of "cause" and the word *amends* and several others, as, *Alms, news, riches*, &c., have only the plural form and may be used either in the singular or plural number.

Some men think exceeding clearly, and reason exceeding forcibly.

He acted in this business bolder than was expected.

They were seen wandering about solitarily and distressed.

Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water teem with life. Every man and every woman were numbered.

Man's happiness or misery are in a great measure put into his hands.

What black despair, what horror fills his mind.

Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man.

His work is perfect; but his brother's is more than perfect.

Which of them two persons was in fault?

We have a great many of them flowers in the garden.

Each of them in their turn receive favors.

Every person, whatever be their station, are bound by the duties of morality and religion.

Humility and love constitutes the essence of religion.

If one man prefer a life of industry and economy, it is because he has an idea of comfort and wealth.

Though the design be laudable, it will involve much anxiety and labor.

A large number of vessels is being built, the present season.

The army is being concentrated to invade the capital.

I intended to have called on my way home.

I had hoped to have seen the affair amicably settled.

It was said by somebody, I know not who, that Charles was the person who they imputed the crime to.

Neither despise the poor or envy the rich.

I should be obliged to him if he will gratify me.

The relations are so uncertain, as that they require much examination.

NOTE.—Prepositions are often incorrectly applied.

They arrived *in* Boston *at* 9 o'clock A. M. [at]

I have spent three weeks *at* Portland. [in.]

The old man was sitting *upon* the ground *on* the side of the road.

I differ entirely *with* you in this particular. [from.]

He was resolved *of* going to the Persian court.

He was eager *of* recommending it to his fellow citizens.
He accused the ministers *for* betraying the Dutch.
The history of Peter is agreeable *with* the sacred text.
It is a use that perhaps I should have thought *on*.
He was made much *on* at Argos.
Neither of them shall make me swerve *out* of my path.
Ye blind guides which strain *at* a gnat and swallow a camel. [out.]

§ 134. COMPOSITION.*

DESCRIPTION.—*Result of Perception.*

EXERCISE I. SIGHT.

DIRECTION.—Place an object before you. Examine it carefully by your sense of sight. You must neither touch, taste nor smell it. Then write what you have learned by sight.

Model. A piece of sealing wax.

This piece of sealing wax is about four inches long, half an inch broad, and a quarter of an inch in thickness. It is of a very bright red, and stamped with the name of the manufacturer. Its surface shines like glass, so that I suppose it is smooth, though I cannot be sure of this without touching it. One end is rough as if broken, and the other is smoked from having been in the flame of a candle.

Describe in a similar manner the following objects.

A book.	An inkstand.	A chair.
A pen-knife.	A sheet of paper.	A looking-glass.

EXERCISE II. TASTE.

DIRECTION.—Taste the object and write the result.

Model. A cup of tea.

The substance in the cup is called tea, though, properly speaking, it is only an infusion of the leaves of that plant. Its taste is peculiar, but pleasant. It is naturally somewhat bitter, but the sugar prevents it from being unpleasantly so. The flavor is aromatic and agreeable.

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* Since the first edition of this work was published, the author has received through the kindness of a friend, a small work on composition, published in Edinburg, 1839, edited by W. & R. Chambers, to which he is mainly indebted for some of the following pages.

Objects to be described.

Onion.	Honey.	Cinnamon.
Potato.	Orange.	Strawberries.
Lemon.	Coffee.	Apples.
Vinegar.	Liquorice.	Cheese.

EXERCISE III. SMELL.

DIRECTION.—Exercise the sense of smell, and write the result.

Model. A full blown rose.

This beautful flower is called the rose. Its buds are gradually opening, and from each proceeds a most delightful odor. But the chief perfume is from the petals of the full blown flower. The essence which is extracted from the rose-leaves, forms a fragrant scent termed otto of roses.

Objects to be described.

Violet.	Lilac.	Burnt feather.
Boxberry.	Cologne.	Tansy.
Orange.	Strawberry.	Hartshorn.
Pineapple.	Geranium.	Wormwood.

EXERCISE IV. FEELING.

DIRECTION.—With eyes shut, touch the object, and write the result

Model. An octavo volume.

I perceive by feeling, that this book is about ten inches long, six broad, and three in thickness.

The book is smooth and hard, with raised ornaments on the back. I think it has been near the fire, for it feels somewhat warm.

Objects to be described.

Door.	Hair-glove.	A shilling.
Sponge.	Marble.	Woolen cloth.
Bread.	Paper.	Spectator.
A bell.	Silk.	Soap.

EXERCISE V. HEARING.

DIRECTION.—Strike the object, or listen to its natural sounds, and describe them.

Model.

Last night I listened to the wind. Sometimes it whined like a dog, then it gave a sort of a shrill whistle. That was followed by a hollow moaning, and

then there was a loud rush like a waterfall. This ceased, and afterwards there was a mixture of whistling and hissing. At last, it died away in gentle murmurs.

Objects to be described.

A fife.	The sea.	Singing of birds.
A violin.	Trees.	A choir.
A trumpet.	Thunder.	Bells.
A drum.	Hail.	Sounds in a street.

EXERCISE VI. ALL THE SENSES.

DIRECTION.—Place the object before you, examine it carefully by your senses in turn. Then write down the information which each organ has given you. Finish what you have learned from one sense, before you proceed to the next.

Model. A pencil.

1. My eyes tell me that the pencil is about five inches long, and a quarter of an inch in thickness. Its shape is round like a pillar, quite flat at one end, and tapering to a point at the other. Its color is a beautiful light brown with dark streaks. It is at present lying on a sheet of white paper, with an old pen on one side, and a short piece of red sealing-wax on the other.

2. By feeling I perceive its shape to be exactly what my eyes communicated. But I ascertain something which my eyes could not tell; namely, that the pencil is as hard as this sealing-wax. It is smooth on one side and rough on the other.

3. When I put it to my nostrils, I perceive that it has a very slight pleasant odor like that of cedar wood.

4. The taste is sweetish. 5. It utters no sound.

Objects to be described.

A piece of money.	An apple.	A thistle.
An orange.	A shell.	A pen.
A watch.	A lemon.	A ball.
A flower.	A book.	A clock.

EXERCISE VII. STATEMENTS AND EXPERIMENTS.

DIRECTION.—Place an object before you. Try it by your own senses as before; then make experiments on it, and write down the result.

Model. A piece of India-rubber.

This piece of India-rubber, or caoutchouc, is three inches long, two broad, and one thick. It is in shape, a sort of solid oblong. Its color is nearly black, with whitish or greyish parts in the middle, while some portions of it seem somewhat brown. Its smell is strong and somewhat disagreeable. It has no

peculiar taste, though some boys are fond of chewing it. I shall now make some *experiments* with it. While I hold one end, you must pull out the other. When you let go, it returns to its former shape. Then I find it is *elastic*. Next, I put a small piece into the flame of a candle, and I perceive it takes fire very readily, burning with brilliant light, white at the bottom and red at the top, emitting a considerable quantity of black smoke. I therefore ascertain that it is *inflammable*. By putting it into water, I perceive it floats, so its specific gravity must be less than that of water. I further observe that it does not diminish its bulk, from which I infer that it is *insoluble* in water. I have been informed however, that tar will dissolve it. I have found it very useful in rubbing out pencil marks.

Things to be Described.

1. Small piece of glass.

QUALITIES, *as proved by the senses*. Size. Shape. Color. Weight. Heat. Hardness. Smell. Taste. *Experiments*. By breaking, marking, &c.

2. Coal.

QUALITIES, *as proved by the senses*. Size. Shape. Color. Weight.

Experiments. With water, with fire, with a hammer.

3. A sheet of paper.

Qualities. Size. Shape, &c.

Experiments. With water. With fire. With paint. With pencil. With ink.

4. Sealing-wax.

Qualities. Shape. Size. Color. Weight, &c.
Experiments. With flame, with water, &c.

EXERCISE VIII. SOURCES OF THINGS.

DIRECTION.—Place an object before you. Think of its origin, or from what source it came. If you do not know, ask your teacher or consult a book. Then put down all that you have heard. You may then add an account of its appearance, qualities, &c. Your description may conclude with some experiments.

Model. A piece of lead.

The substance before me is a metal called lead. I procured this piece at the plumber's, and he bought it of the owner of the lead-works. Lead is obtained by melting the ore, which is dug out of mines by men employed for that purpose. Lead is bluish-white, very bright when cut or newly melted, but it becomes dull and dim after it has been in the air for some time. It has no taste, but if you rub it, you will perceive a slight smell. It is

very soft, and may be hammered into thin plates. It is easily melted, as you may prove by putting a piece into the fire.

Objects to be Described.

1. A piece of bread.

Suggestions. *Baker*, oven, flour; *miller*, mill, stream, horses, water; *farmer*, ground, plow, harrow, horses, men, sun, rain, harvest, thrashing, winnowing; soft, white, sweet, wholesome, nutritious.

2. A coat.

Suggestions. Tailor, cloth, merchant, manufacturer, wool, dyeing, spinning, weaving; wool-grower, sheep-washing, shearing. Shape, color, quality, &c.

3. Sugar.

Suggestions. Grocer, merchant, ship, sailors, oven; West Indies, plantation, negroes, sugar-cane; refining. Shape, color, size, smell, taste, &c.

4. Paper.

Suggestions. Stationers, paper-maker's mill, water or steam, rags, boiling, sizing, &c.; rag-merchant, linen, flax plant, mode of preparation, &c. Shape, size, color, quality.

EXERCISE IX. USES OF THINGS.

DIRECTION.—Place the object before you, and think for what purpose it is usually employed. If you do not know, ask your teacher or consult a book.

Model. A piece of lead.

This metal is of very great use. Water pipes, cisterns, and roofs of houses are made of it. Chemists form two substances out of it, called red and white lead, both of which are poisonous. If we mix it with tin, the result is that useful compound called pewter, of which some table-spoons are made. When blended with antimony, it affords a composition from which printers' types are cast.

Mention the uses of the following objects.

Iron and steel.	Gold.	Sheep.
Wood.	Leather.	Silver.
Mahogany.	Cotton Cloth.	Water.
Glass.	Cows.	Steam-engine.

EXERCISE X. PARTS OF THINGS.

DIRECTION.—Place the object before you. Inquire how it came there, say where you bought it, whence the merchant procured it, &c. Tell whether it is natural or artificial, simple or compound, &c.

Model. A pen-knife.

There is a pen-knife on the table before me. I bought it at the cutler's. He either made it himself or procured it of the manufacturer. It consists of two parts, each formed of a different substance. The handle is of horn, probably that of a stag. It is of a brown color, rough and hard. It has several small rivets in it for the purpose of holding its sides together. On one side there is a small plate on which the owner's name may be engraven. The second substance is steel, of which the blade is composed. Steel is an artificial metal, the result of iron prepared with charcoal. It is very hard and smooth. When properly tempered, it makes very sharp blades.

Practice according to the Direction and Model.

1. A room.

Suggestions. Floor boards, carpet-maker, pattern, color, texture, size, shape, walls, plaster, paper, color, figure, quality.

2. A book.

Suggestions. Leaves, pages, margins, title-pages, edges, plates, wood cuts, binding, author, printer, book-binder, book-seller.

3. A house.

Suggestions. Foundation, walls, roof, floors, doors, windows, stairs, chimneys, wood-work, plastering, painting, papering. What are the tradesmen employed in making a house?

4. A fire-place. 5. An inkstand.

EXERCISE XI.

The following directions may afford some aid to the learner in his efforts at composition.

1. A subject should be selected on which the writer has some definite knowledge, and which is not beyond his power of comprehension.

2. The writer should *think long* and *patiently* on his subject before attempting to compose.

3. When the subject admits of it, he should form a plan and make such divisions as will enable him to examine every part separately, something like the following example.

EXAMPLE.

Subject.—Children should render obedience and love to their parents.

1. Because they are under obligations to their parents for benefits received from them.

2. Because in this way they secure their own happiness.

3. Because God has commanded them to honor their parents.*

Sometimes merely the heads of an essay or subject are presented as a skeleton of the whole; as follows:

Subject.—Independence.

1. The meaning of independence.
2. Its effect upon the character.
3. Its effect upon society.
4. The different kinds of independence.
5. The difference between independence and obstinacy.

EXERCISE XII.

Let a plan or skeleton be made out for the treatment of the following *subjects*.

Subjects.

Benevolence.	Industry.
Power of conscience.	The love of praise..
Integrity.	Intemperance.
The observance of the Sabbath.	Education.
A fretful temper.	The love of knowledge.

After the subject has been selected, and methodized or planned, the following directions may be observed.

1. Examine the divisions separately, and place such thoughts under each division, and no others, as properly belong to it.

2. Carefully analyze every sentence after it has been written, to see whether any improper or unnecessary words have been used, and whether the sentence is grammatically correct.

3. After the essay or composition has been once written, begin anew and rewrite every sentence, and inquire at each, whether some different expressions would not be more clear and forcible, keeping in mind that almost every thought may be expressed in a variety of ways.

4. Attend carefully to the spelling, pointing, and capitals.

EXERCISE XIII. VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

The same idea may be expressed in different ways; and it will be both useful and entertaining for the learner to practice such exercises as the following.

* Newman' Rhetoric: See also Parker's Aids to English composition.

MODEL.

The soul is immortal.

The same idea may be expressed in different ways.

The soul will never die.
The soul will never cease to exist.
The soul will live forever.
The soul is destined to an endless existence.

Sentences for Practice.

A wise son maketh a glad father. A foolish son is the heaviness of (cause of sorrow to) his mother.
When we have finished our work, we will play.
After dinner we will walk in the field.
Intemperance is ruinous to the mind as well as to the body.
A wolf let into the sheep-fold, will devour the sheep.
True religion teaches us to be gentle and affable.
My friend died last night, without a struggle or a groan.

§ 135. PROSODY.

Prosody treats of accent, quantity, and the laws of versification.

1. Accent is the laying of a particular stress of voice on a certain syllable in a word; as, The syllable *ban* in *aban*don.

NOTE.—Accent should not be confounded with Emphasis. *Emphasis* is a stress of voice on a word in a sentence, to mark its importance. *Accent* is a stress of voice on a syllable in a word.

2. The quantity of a syllable is the time which is required to pronounce it. A short syllable requires half the time of a long one.

§ 136. VERSIFICATION.

Versification is a measured arrangement of words into poetical lines or verses.

A verse consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to certain rules.

Rhyme is the correspondence of the last sound of one line to the last sound of another.

Blank verse is the name given to a kind of poetry written without *rhyme*.

A *stanza* consists of several lines, and is sometimes improperly called a verse.

A couplet, or distich, consists of two poetical lines which make complete sense.

A foot is a division of a verse consisting of two or three syllables.

Scanning is dividing a line into the feet of which it is composed.

The principal feet in English verse are the following.

FEET.

1. An Iambus. ⏑ –
2. A Trochee. – ⏑
3. An Anapæst. ⏑ ⏑ –

1. An Iambus has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented; as, Betráy, consíst.

2. A Trochee has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented; as, Háteful, péttish.

3. An Anapæst has the first two syllables unaccented, and the last accented; as, Contravéne, acquiésce.

§ 137. IAMBIC VERSE.

Iambic verses may be divided into several species, according to the number of feet or syllables of which they are composed.

1. The shortest form of the English Iambic consists of an Iambus, with an additional short syllable; as,

Disdaining,
Complaining,
Consenting,
Repenting.

NOTE.—We have no poem of this measure, but it may be met with in stanzas.

2. The second form of our Iambic is also too short to be continued through any great number of lines. It consists of *two* Iambuses.

NOTE.—In reading Iambic verse, the accent is on the second syllable of each foot; or on the even syllables; as, To mé | the róse.

What pláce | is hére!
What scénes | appéar!

It sometimes takes, or may take an additional short syllable; as,

| Upón | a moúnt | ain
Beside a foúntain.

3. The third form consists of *three* Iambuses.

In plá | ces fár | or neár,
Or fá | mous ór | obscuré.

It sometimes admits of an additional short syllable; as,

Our heárts | no lón | ger lán | guish.

4. The fourth form is made up of *four* Iambuses.

And máy | at lást | my weá | ry age,
Find oút | the peáce | ful hér | mit | áge.

5. The fifth species of English Iambic, consists of *five* Iambuses.

How lóv'd, | how vál | u'd ónce | aváils | thee nót,
To whóm reláted, ór by whóm begót.

This is called the *Heroic* measure. In its simplest form it consists of five Iambuses; but by the admission of other feet, it is capable of many varieties.

6. The sixth form of our Iambic is commonly called the *Alexandrine* measure. It consists of *six* Iambuses.

For thóu | art bút | of dúst; | be húm | ble ánd | be wise.

7. The seventh and last form of our Iambic measure, is made up of *seven* Iambuses.

The Lórd | descén | ded fróm | above | and bów'd | the heáv | ens high.

This was anciently written in one line; but it is now broken into two; the first containing four feet, and the second three;

When áll | thy mér | cies O' | my Gód!
My ris | ing soúl | survéys.

§ 138. TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. The shortest Trochaic verse in our language, consists of one Trochee and a long syllable.

Túmult | cêase,
Sink to | péace.

This measure is defective in dignity, and can seldom be used on serious occasions.

2. The second English form of the Trochaic consists of *two* feet; and is likewise so brief, that it is rarely used for any very serious purpose.

On' the | móun | tain,
By' a | foun | tain.

NOTE.—In reading Trochaic verse, the accent is placed on the first syllable of each foot, or on the odd syllables; as, On' the | moun'tain.

It sometimes contains two feet, or trochees, with an additional long syllable; as,

In' the | dáys of | old
Fábles pláinly told.

3. The third species consists of *three* trochees; as,

Whén our | heárts are | móurning:

Or of three trochees, with an additional long syllable; as,

Réstless | mórtals | tóil for | nóught;
Bliss in | váin from | eárth is | sought.

4. The fourth Trochaic species consists of *four* trochees; as,

Róund us | róars the | témpest | lóuder.

This form may take an additional long syllable, as follows:

I'dle | áfter | dinner | in his | chair,
Sát a | fármer, | rúddy, | fát and | fair.

But this measure is very uncommon.

5. The fifth Trochaic species is likewise uncommon. It is composed of *five* trochees.

All' that | wálk on | foót or | ride in | chári | ots,
All' that | dwéll in | pála | ces or | gárrets.

6. The sixth form of the English Trochaic consists of *six* trochees; as,

On' a | móuntain, | strétch'd be | neath a | hoáry | willow,
Láy a | shèpherd | swáin, and | view'd the | rólling billow.

This seems to be the longest Trochaic line that our language admits.

§ 139. ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. The first and simplest form of our genuine Anapæstic verse is made up of *two* Anapæsts; as,

But his coúr | age 'gan fail,
For no árts | could avail.

This form admits of an additional short syllable.

Then his coúr | age 'gan fáil | him
For no árts | could aváil | him.

2. The second species consists of *three* Anapæsts.

O ye woóds, | spread your bránch | es apáce;
To your deépest recésses I fly';

I would hide with the beasts of the chase;
I would vanish from every eye.

This is a very pleasing measure, and much used, both in solemn and cheerful subjects.

3. The third kind of the English Anapæstic, consists of *four* Anapæsts.

May I gov | ern my pas | sions with ab | solute sway;
And grow wi | ser and bet | ter as life | wears away.

This measure will admit of a short syllable at the end; as,

On the warm | cheek of youth, | smiles and ro | ses are blend | ing.

NOTE.—In reading Anapæstic verse, the accent is placed on the third syllable of each foot; as,

I would hide | with the beasts | of the chase.

§ 140. POETIC LICENSE.

Poetry owes much of its effect to the peculiar style in which it is dressed. It indulges more freely than prose in figurative expressions, in contractions and transpositions, in exclamations, antiquated words and phrases, and other peculiarities.

Such licenses may be explained under what is usually termed Figures of Etymology, Figures of Syntax, and Figures of Rhetoric.

A figure of Etymology is the intentional deviation in the usual form of a *word*.

A figure of Syntax is the intentional deviation in the usual construction of a word.

A figure of Rhetoric is a departure from the usual application of a word.

§ 141. FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

1. ELISION is the omission of a part of a word.

This figure includes *Syncope*, or an omission in the middle of a word; as, List'ning, lov'd; *apocope*, or the elision of a final vowel or syllable; *aphærisis*, or the elision of a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, *'gainst* for *against*, *squire* for *esquire*.

2. SYNÆRESIS is the contraction of two syllables into one; as, *Seest* for *see-est*, *drowned* for *drown-ed*.

3. DIÆRESIS is the separation of two vowels that might form a diphthong; as, *aërial*, not *ærial*; *coöperate*, not *cooperate*.

PARAGOGE is the addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word; as, *Without-en* for *without*; *bound-en* for *bound*.

PROSTHESIS is the prefixing of an expletive letter; as, *Be-loved* for *loved*; *a-down* for *down*; *y-clad* for *clad*.

THESIS is the separation of a compound word, by an intervening word; as, *To-us-ward*, for *toward-us*.

§ 142. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

1. ELLIPSIS is the omission of some word or words necessary to complete the construction of the sentence, but not essential to express the meaning.

Almost all compound sentences are more or less elliptical, some examples of which may be seen under the different parts of speech.

1. The ellipsis of the *article*; as, A man, woman, and child. The article *a* is omitted, by ellipsis, before woman and child.

2. The ellipsis of the *noun*; as, The laws of God and man; i.e. the laws of God and the laws of man.

3. The ellipsis of the *adjective*; as, A delightful garden and orchard; i.e. a delightful garden, and a *delightful* orchard.

4. The ellipsis of a *pronoun*; as, I love and fear him; i.e. I love *him*, &c. This is the man they love, i.e. *which* they love.

5. The ellipsis of the *verb*; as, The man was old and crafty; i.e. the man was old, and the man was crafty; She was young and beautiful and good; i.e. she was young, she was beautiful, and she was good. I went to see and hear him; i.e. to see him, and to hear him.

6. The ellipsis of the *adverb*; as, He spoke and acted wisely; i.e. He spoke wisely, and he acted wisely.

7. The ellipsis of a *preposition*; as, He went into the abbeys, halls, and public buildings; *into* is omitted before *halls*, and *public buildings*.

8. The ellipsis of the *conjunction*; as, They confess the power, wisdom, goodness, and love of the Creator; *and* is omitted, by ellipsis, before *wisdom* and *goodness*.

9. The ellipsis of the *interjection*; as, O pity and shame! i.e. O pity! O shame!

2. PLEONASM is the use of more words than are necessary to express the meaning; as,

Peace, O virtue! Peace is all thy own.

4. ENALLAGE is the use of one part of speech for another; as,

The fearful hare limps *awkward*.
They fall *successive* and *successive* live.

4. HYPERBATON is the transposition of words; as,

> The muses fair, these peaceful *shades among*.
> He wanders *earth around*.

§ 143. FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

1. A SIMILE is an express and formal comparison.

EXAMPLES.

The actions of princes are like those great rivers, the course of which every one beholds, but their springs have been seen by few.

> As from the wing no scar the sky retains,
> The parted wave no furrow from the keel,
> So dies in human hearts the thought of death.

2. A METAPHOR is a comparison implied in a single word.

EXAMPLES.

> I will be unto her a *wall* of fire round about.
> Thou art my *rock* and my fortress.
> Thy word is a *lamp* to my feet and a *light* to my path.

3. PERSONIFICATION or PROSOPOPŒIA is that figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects.

EXAMPLES.

Jordan was driven back! The mountains skipped like rams, and the little hills like lambs.

> Rome for empire far renowned
> *Tramples* on a thousand States;
> Soon her pride shall *kiss* the ground—
> Hark! the Gaul is at her gates.

4. An ALLEGORY is a continued metaphor; for examples See Ezekiel XVII. 22—24, and Ps. XXX. 8.

4. METONYMY is substituting the name of one thing for that of another.

EXAMPLES.

They crown *the wine* [cups]. They read Cowper; i.e. The poetry of Cowper. *Gray hairs* should be respected.

6. VISION is a figure by which something imaginary is represented as *real* and present to the senses.

EXAMPLE.

I seem to myself to behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me the slaughtered heaps of citizens, lying unburied in the midst of their ruined country. The furious countenance of Cethegus rises to my view, while with a savage joy, he is triumphing in your miseries.

7. APOSTROPHE is turning off from the regular course of the subject, to address some person or thing.

EXAMPLE.

Soul of the just! companion of the Good!
O sun, thy everlasting light.

8. HYPERBOLE consists in magnifying or diminishing a thing beyond the truth.

EXAMPLE.

I saw their chief, tall as a rock of ice; his spear the blasted fir; his shield the rising moon; he sat on the shore like a cloud of mist on the hill.

9. SYNECDOCHE is putting the name of the whole of anything for a part, or a part for the whole; as the *waves* for the sea, the *roof* for the house, the *head* for the person, the *heart* for the emotions, &c.

10. IRONY is the intentional use of words in a sense contrary to that which the writer or speaker intends to convey; as,

The prophet Elijah when he challenged the priests of Baal, "mocked them and said, Cry aloud, for he is a god; either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked."

11. ANTITHESIS is the placing of different or opposite words in contrast; as,

If you wish to enrich a person, study not to increase his stores, but to diminish his desires.

Though *poor*, *luxurious*; though *submissive*, *vain*.
Though *deep*, yet *clear*; though *gentle*, yet not *dull*.

12. CLIMAX is a figure in which the sentiment rises or sinks in regular gradation; as,

Add to your faith virtue; and to virtue knowledge; and to knowledge temperance, &c. See 2 Pet. 1: 5–7.

TABLE I.

1. Nouns whose plurals are formed according to the analogy of the languages from which they are derived.

Alumnus	alumni	Focus	foci
Arcanum	arcana	Gymnasium	gymnasia, gymnasiums
Automaton	automata, automatons	Genus	genera
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Antithesis	antitheses	Ignis fatuus	ignes fatui
Analysis	analyses	Index	indexes (pointers or tables of contents)
Axis	axes	Index	indices (referring to algebraic quantities)
Apex	apices, apexes	Lamina	laminæ
Appendix	appendices, appendixes	Larva	larvæ
Basis	bases	Medium	media, mediums
Beau	beaux	Memorandum	memoranda, memorandums
Bandit	banditti, bandits	Momentum	momenta, momentums
Criterion	criteria, criterions	Metamorphosis	metamorphoses
Crisis	crises	Miasma	miasmata
Calix	calices, calixes	Monsieur	messieures
Chrysalis	chrysalides	Nebula	nebulæ
Cherub	cherubim, cherubs	Oasis	oases
Datum	data	Phenomenon	phenomena
Desideratum	desiderata	Parenthesis	parentheses
Dogma	dogmas, dogmata	Phasis	phases
Diæresis	diæreses	Radius	radii
Ellipsis	ellipses	Scholium	scholia, scholiums
Emphasis	emphases	Stratum	strata
Ephemeris	ephemerides	Stamen	stamens, stamina
Effluvium	effluvia	Stimulus	stimuli
Encomium	encomiums, encomia	Seraph	seraphim, seraph
Erratum	errata	Speculum	specula
Fungus	fungi, funguses	Thesis	theses
Formula	formulas, formulæ	Vortex	vortices

2. The following nouns are used only in the plural.

Annals	Drawers (an article of dress)	Literati	Pincers
Archives	Dregs	Lees	Pleiads
Ashes	Embers	Letters (literature)	Snuffers
Assets	Entrails	Lungs	Scissors
Billiards	Goods	Minutiæ	Shears
Bitters	Hatches	Manners	Shambles
Bowels	Hose (stockings)	Morals	Tidings
Breeches	Hysterics	Nippers	Tongs
Clothes	Ides	Nones	Thanks
Calends	Victuals	Orgies	Vespers
Vitals			

TABLE II.

1. Nouns whose feminine gender is expressed by different words.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Beau	belle	Gentleman	lady	Man	woman
Boy	girl	Hart	roe	Master	mistress
Brother	sister	Horse	mare	Master	miss
Buck	doe	Husband	wife	Nephew	niece
Drake	duck	King	queen	Papa	mamma
Earl	countess	Lad	lass	Son	daughter
Father	mother	Landlord	landlady	Stag	hind
Friar or monk	nun	Lord	lady	Uncle	aunt
Gander	goose	Male	female	Wizard	witch

2. Nouns whose feminine is expressed by a difference of termination.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Abbot	abbess	Instructor	instructress
Actor	actress	Jew	Jewess
Administrator	administratrix	Landgrave	landgravine
Adulterer	adulteress	Lion	lioness
Ambassador	ambassadress	Marquis	marchioness
Arbiter	arbitress	Margrave	margravine
Author	authoress	Negro	negress
Baron	baroness	Patron	patroness
Bridegroom	bride	Peer	peeress
Benefactor	benefactress	Poet	poetess
Caterer	cateress	Prior	prioress
Chanter	chantress	Prophet	prophetess
Conductor	conductress	Protector	protectress
Count	countess	Priest	priestess
Czar	czarina	Prince	princess
Dauphin	dauphiness	Shepherd	shepherdess
Deacon	deaconess	Songster	songstress
Host	hostess	Sorcerer	sorceress
Duke	duchess	Sultan	sultaness or sultana
Emperor	empress	Tailor	tailoress
Enchanter	enchantress	Testator	testatrix
Executor	executrix	Tiger	tigress
Governor	governess	Tutor	tutoress
Heir	heiress	Viscount	viscountess
Hero	heroine	Votary	votaress
Hunter	huntress	Widower	widow

TABLE III.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

The forms marked thus* are obsolete, or nearly so, but occur in ancient writings.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*P. Participle.*
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise, rise	arose, rose	arisen, risen
Awake	awoke awaked	awaked
Bear	bore, bare*	borne
Beat	beat	beat, beaten
Begin	began began	begun
Bend	bended bent	bended, bent
Bereave	bereaved bereft	bereaved, bereft
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bid, bade	bid, bidden
Bind	bound	bound, bounden*
Bite	bit	bit, bitten
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke brake*	broke, broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	builded built	built
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	catched caught	catched, caught
Chide	chid	chid, chidden*
Chuse Choose	chose	chose, chosen
Cleave (to adhere)	cleaved clove*	cleaved
Cleave (to split)	cleft	cleft, clove, cloven

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*P. Participle.*
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed	clothed, cled
Come	came come	come
Cost	cost	coste
Crow	crowed crew	crowed
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare†	durst dared*	dared
Deal	dealt, dealed	dealt, dealed
Dig	dug digged	dug, digged
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drive	drove drave*	driven, drove
Drink	drank	drank, drunk, drunken*
Dwell	dwelt dwelled	dwelt, dwelled
Eat	ate	eat, eaten
Engrave	engraved	engraven, engraved
Fall	fell	fallen
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forget	forgot forgot	forgot, forgotten
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen, froze
Get	got, gate	got, gotten
Gild	gilded, gilt	gilded, gilt

† Dare, when transitive, is regular.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*P. Participle.*
Gird	girded, girt	girded, girt
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graved, graven
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Have	had	had
Hang	hanged hung	hanged, hung
Hear	heard	heard
Hew	hewed	hewed, hewn
Hide	hid	hid, hidden
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held, holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
Knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie (down)	lay	lain
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mowed, mown
Pay	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	rid, ridden
Ring	rung rang	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	rived, riven
Run	ran, run	run
Saw	sawed	sawed, sawn
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken, shook
Shape	shaped	shape, shapen
Shave	shaved	shaved, shaven
Shear	sheared	sheared, shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone shined	shone shined
Shew	shewn	shewn
Show	showed	shown, showed
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Shrink	shrunk, shrank	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*P. Participle.*
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sung sang	sung
Sink	sunk, sank	sunk
Sit	sat	sat, sitten
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slid, slidden
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit, slitted	slit, slitted
Smite	smote	smitten, smit
Sow	sowed	sowed, sown
Speak	spoke spake	spoke, spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilled spilt	spilled, spilt
Spin	spun, span	spun
Spit	spit, spat	spit, spitten
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprung sprang	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stole, stolen
Sting	stung	stung
Stride	strid, strode	strid, stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strow	strowed	strowed, strown
Strew	strewed	strewed
Swear	swore sware	sworn
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Swell	swelled	swelled, swollen
Swim	swum, swam	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore, tare	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	thrived throve	thrived, thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trod, trodden
Wax	waxed	waxed, waxen
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven, wove
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	worked wrought	worked wrought
Wring	wrung wringed	wrung, wringed
Write	wrote, writ	written, writ

NOTE.—A consonant is sometimes annexed to the present of regular verbs before the termination *d* or *ed* is annexed to form the Imperfect tense or Perfect Participle. See Rule 5, page 224.

APPENDIX.

DERIVATION.

About 23000, or five-eighths of the words in the English Language are of Anglo-Saxon origin; the remaining part are derived from the Latin, Greek, French, and some other Languages.

The following is a specimen of the orthography of the English Language about the fourteenth century.

In the days of Eroude, kyng of Judee, ther was a prest, Zacarye by name; of the sort of Abia, and his wyf was of the doughtirs of Aaron; and hir name was Elizabeth. Luke I.—*Wickliffe's Version, written* 1380.

The following extracts are from some of the earliest English authors.

Nowe for to speak of the commune,
It is to dread of that fortune,
Which hath befalle in sondrye londes.—*Gower.*

Alas, alas! with how defe an ere deth cruell turneth awaie fro wretches, and naieth for to close weepyng eyess.—*Chaucer.*

A knight ther was, and that a worthy man,
That fro the time that he first began
To ridin out, he lovid chevalrie,
Trouth and honour, fredome and curtesy.—*Id.*

Mine high estate, power and auctoritie,
If yene know, enserche and ye shall spie,
That richesse, worship, welth and dignitie,
Joy, rest, and peace, and all things fynally,
That any pleasure or profit may come by,
To mannes comfort, ayde and sustinaunce,
Is all at my deuyse and ordinaunce.—*Thomas More.*

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

Words are either primitive or derivative.

A *primitive* word is one which is not derived from any other word in the language.

A *derivative* is one which is formed from some primitive word or words.

Words are derived from one another in various ways; viz:

1. Substantives are derived from verbs.
2. Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs.
3. Adverbs are derived from substantives.
4. Substantives are derived from adjectives.
5. Adverbs are derived from adjectives.

1. *Substantives are derived from verbs;* as, from "to love," comes "lover;" from "to visit, visitor;" from "to survive, survivor;" &c.

In the following instances, and in many others, it is difficult to determine whether the verb was deduced from the noun, or the noun from the verb, viz: Love, to love; hate, to hate; fear, to fear; sleep, to sleep; walk, to walk; ride, to ride; act, to act; &c.

2. *Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives,* and sometimes from *adverbs;* as, from the noun *salt* comes "to salt;" from the adjective *warm*, "to warm;" and from the adverb *forward*, "to forward." Sometimes they are formed by lengthening the vowel, or softening the consonant; as, from *grass*, "to graze;" sometimes by adding *en;* as from *length*, "to lengthen;" especially to adjectives; as, from *short*, "to shorten;" *bright*, "to brighten."

3. *Adjectives are derived from nouns,* in the following manner: Adjectives denoting plenty are derived from nouns by adding *y;* as, from health, healthy, wealth, wealthy; might, mighty; &c.

Adjectives denoting the matter out of which any thing is made, are derived from nouns by adding *en;* as, from Oak, oaken; wood, wooden; wool, woolen; &c.

Adjectives denoting abundance are derived from nouns, by adding *ful;* as, Joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful; &c.

Adjectives denoting plenty, but with some kind of diminution, are derived from nouns by adding *some;* as, from Light, lightsome; trouble, troublesome; toil, toilsome; &c.

Adjectives denoting want are derived from nouns, by adding *less;* as, from worth, worthless; from care, careless; joy, joyless; &c.

Adjectives denoting likeness, are derived from nouns, by adding *ly;* as, from man, manly; earth, earthly; court, courtly; &c.

Some adjectives are derived from other adjectives, or from nouns, by adding *ish* to them; which termination, when added to adjectives, imports diminution, or lessening the quality; as, White, whitish; i.e. somewhat white. When added to nouns, it signifies similitude or tendency to a character; as, Child, childish; thief, thievish.

Some adjectives are formed from nouns or verbs, by adding the termination *able;* and those adjectives signify capacity; as, Answer, answerable; to change, changeable.

4. *Nouns are derived from adjectives* sometimes by adding the termination *ness;* as, White, whiteness; swift, swiftness; sometimes by adding *th* or *t*, and making a small change in some of the letters; as, Long, length; high, height.

5. *Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives*, by adding *ly*, or changing *le* into *ly;* and denote the same quality as the adjectives from which they are derived; as, from *base* comes *basely;* from *slow, slowly;* from *able, ably.*

There are so many other ways of deriving words from one another, that it would be extremely difficult, and nearly impossible, to enumerate them. The primitive words of any language are very few; the derivatives form much the greater number. A few more instances only can be given here.

Some nouns are derived from other nouns, by adding the terminations *hood* or *head, ship, ery, wick, rick, dom, ian, ment,* and *age.*

Substantives ending in *hood* or *head*, are such as signify character or qualities; as, Manhood, knighthood, falsehood, &c.

Nouns ending in *ship*, are those that signify office, employment, state, or condition; as, Lordship, stewardship, partnership, &c. Some nouns ending in *ship*, are derived from adjectives; as, Hard, hardship, &c.

Nouns which end in *ery*, signify action or habit; as, Slavery, foolery, prudery, &c. Some nouns of this sort come from adjectives; as, Brave, bravery, &c.

Nouns ending in *wick, rick,* and *dom*, denote dominion, jurisdiction, or condition; as, Bishoprick, kingdom, dukedom, freedom, &c.

Nouns which end in *ian*, are those that signify profession; as, Physician, musician, &c. Those that end in *ment* and *age*, come generally from the French, and commonly signify the act or habit; as, Commandment, usage.

Some nouns ending in *ard*, are derived from verbs or adjectives, and denote character or habit; as, Drunk, drunkard; dote, dotard.

Some nouns have the form of diminutives; but these are not many. They are formed by adding the terminations, *kin, ling, ing, ock, el,* and the like; as, Lamb, lambkin; goose, gosling; duck, duckling; hill, hillock; &c.

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

Most of the derivative words of the English language are formed by the aid of *prefixes* and *suffixes*.

A *prefix* is a letter, syllable, or word, joined to the beginning of a word; as, *a*shore, *re*turn.

A *suffix*, is a letter or syllable annexed to the end of a word; as, sure*ly*, content*ment*.

1. SAXON PREFIXES.

A signifies *on*, *in*, or *at*; as, *a*shore, *a*far, *a*sleep.

BE, *upon*, *by*, *for*, &c.; as, *be*speak, *be*tide, *be*sprinkle, *be*cause.

FOR, *from* or *against*; as, *for*bear, *for*bid.

FORE, *before*; as, *fore*tell, *fore*know.

MIS, *wrong*, *erroneous*, or *defective*; as, *mis*conduct, *mis*rule.

OUT, *beyond*, *more*, or *exterior*; as, *out*run, *out*live, *out*side.

OVER denotes *excess*, or *superiority*; as, *over*do, *over*come.

UN, *negation*, or *privation*; as, *un*certain, *un*bind.

UNDER signifies *beneath*, *inferior*; as, *under*mine, *under*go.

UP denotes *elevation*, or *subversion*; as, *up*land, *up*set.

WITH signifies *from*, or *back*; as, *with*stand, *with*hold.

2. LATIN PREFIXES.

A, AB, or ABS, signifies *from*; as, *a*vert, *ab*stract.

AD, A, AC, AF, AG, AL, AN, AP, AR, AS, or AT, signifies *to*, *at*; as, *ac*cede, *al*lot, *an*nex, *ar*rest, *at*tract, *af*fix.

ANTE signifies *before*; as, *ante*cedent.

CIRCUM signifies *round*; as, *circum*navigate.

CON, CO, COG, COL, COM, or COR, signifies *either*, *together*; as, *co*here, *col*lect, *com*press, *cor*relative.

CONTRA signifies *against*; as, *contra*dict. This prefix is sometimes changed to *counter*; as, *counter*act.

DE signifies *from* or *down*; as, *de*duce.

DIS generally implie *separation* or *disunion*; as in *dis*solve. It has sometimes a negative use; as in *dis*approve. *Dis* takes also the form *di* and *dif*; as in *di*verge, *dif*fuse.

E or EX signifies *out of*, or *from*; as, *e*ject, to cast out; *e*vade, to escape from. This prefix takes also the forms *ec* and *ef*; as, *ec*centric, *ef*face.

EXTRA signifies *beyond* or *more than*; as, *extra*ordinary.

IN, IM, EN, IG, IL and IR, before adjectives, have a negative signification; as, *in*active, not active. Before a verb, they signify *in*, *into*, or *against*.

INTER signifies *between* or *among*; as, *inter*vene, *inter*sperse, to scatter among.

OB, OC, OF, OP, *for, in the way of;* as, *ob*struct, *oc*cur.

PER, *through* or *by;* as, *per*vade, to pass through; *per*chance, by chance.

PRE or PRÆ, *before;* as, *pre*cede, to go before.

PRO, *for, forth,* or *forward;* as, *pro*noun, for a noun; *pro*voke, to call forth; *pro*mote, to move forward.

RE, *again* or *back;* as, *re*enter, *re*call.

RETRO, *backward;* as, *retro*cession.

SE, *aside;* as, *se*cede.

SINE, *without;* as, *sine*cure, without care.

SUB, SUC, SUF, SUG, SUP and SUS signify *under;* as, *sub*scribe, to write under.

SUPER signifies *beyond, above,* or *over;* as, *super*natural, beyond nature; *super*vise, to oversee.

TRANS signifies *over,* or *beyond;* as, *trans*fer, to carry over.

3. GREEK PREFIXES.

1. A and AN, in Greek, denote privation; as, *A*nomalous, wanting rule; *an*onymous, wanting name; *an*archy want of government.

2. AMPHI, *both* or *two;* as, *Amphi*bious, living in *two* elements.

3. ANTI, *against;* as, *Anti*acid, against acidity; *anti*febrile, against fever; *anti*thesis, a placing against.

4. APO, APH, *from;* as, *Apo*strophe, a turning from; *aph*æresis, a taking from.

5. DIA, *through;* as, *Dia*gonal, through the corners; *dia*meter, the measure through.

6. EPI, EPH, *upon;* as, *Epi*demic, upon the people; *eph*emesa, upon a day.

7. HEMI, *half;* as, *Hemi*sphere, half a sphere.

8. HYPER, *over;* as, *Hyper*critical, over-critical.

9. HYPO, *under;* as, *Hypo*thesis, supposition, or a placing-under.

10. META, *beyond, over;* as, *Meta*morphose, to change to another shape.

11. PARA, *against;* as, *Para*dox, something contrary to common opinion

12. PERI, *around;* as, *Peri*phery, the circumference, or measure round.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

1. Monosyllables which end in *f, l,* or *s,* preceded by a single vowel, have the final consonant doubled; as, *Staff, grass, mill.*

Except, *as, of, if, gas, has, was, yes, his, is, us, thus, this.*

2. Double *l* generally becomes single before an additional consonant; as, *skill, skilful.*

NOTE.—Words ending in any other double letter, preserve it double before the terminations *ful, ly, ness, less.*

3. In words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i*, before an additional syllable; as, *Merry, merrier pity, pitied.*

EXCEPTION.—Before *ing*, *y* is retained to prevent the doubling of *i*; as, Marry, marrying. Words ending in *ie* drop the *e* and take *y*; as, die, dying.

NOTE.—The verb *to dye*, or *die*, (to color) and some others, retain the *e* before *ing*, to prevent ambiguity.

4. Words ending in silent *e* generally omit the *e* before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *Force, forcible, rave, raving.*

EXCEPTION.—(1) Words ending in *ce* or *ge*, retain the *e* before *able, ous*; as, *Peace, peaceable, change, changeable, outrage, outrageous.*

(2) Words ending in *oe* retain the final *e*; as, *Hoe, hoeing; shoe, shoeing.*

(3) Words ending in *ee* drop the final *e* on receiving an additional syllable beginning with *e*; as, *see, seest, agree, agreed.*

5. Verbs of one syllable ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, and verbs of more than one syllable ending in the same manner, and accented on the last syllable (*as regret*,) double the final consonant on receiving an additional syllable; as, *Regret, regretted.*

REMARK.—Most verbs ending in *l* though not accented on the last syllable, double the *l* on receiving an additional syllable; as, *Travel, travelling, travelled, model, modelling, modelled.*

NOTE—This last remark is according to the orthography of *Worcester's Dictionary.* Perry and Webster allow but a single *l*.

6. Compound words formed by prefixing a word or a syllable to a monosyllable ending in *all*, retain the *ll*; as, *Befall, bethrall, recall.* Except *withal, therewithal*, and *wherewithal.*—*Worcester.*

INDEX.

Adjectives, - - - 39, 119, 171.
Adjunct of Nouns, - - - - - 38.
Adjuncts of the Verb, - - 48.
Adverbs, - - - - - 45, 130, 186.
Alphabet, Division of Letters, - 14.
Analysis of simple sentences, - 53.
Analyzing and parsing, - - - 70.
Analysis of compound sentences, 192.
Anapæstic verse, - - - - - 210.
Appendix, - - - - - - - - - 219.
Apposition, - - - - - - - 150.
Articles, - - - - - - 120, 176.
Auxiliary verbs, - - - - - 88.

Be, - - - - - - - - 31.

Capital letters, - - - - - - 20.
Case independent, - - - - - 167.
Case, - - - - - - - - - - 67.
Combination, - - - - - - - 134.
Classification of sentences, - - 142.
Comparison of adjectives, - - - 123.
Comparatives and superlatives, 176.
Comparison, - - - - - - - 130.
Composition, - - - - - - 200.
Compound Pronouns, - - - - 127.
Compound Sentences, - - - 143.
Conjugation of regular verbs, - 92.
Conjunctions, - - - - 55, 133, 189.
Connectives, - - - - - - 144.
Consonants, - - - - - - - 15.
Consonant Substitutes, - - - 17.

Declension of nouns, - - - 75.
Defective verbs, - - - - - - 116.
Definitive adjectives, - - - - 120.
Derivation, - - - 219.
Derivation of words, - 220.
Descriptive adjectives, - - - - 119
Division of nouns, - - - - 60.
Diphthongs, - - - - - 19.

Ellipsis, - - - - - - - - - 212.
Emphatic form, - - - - - 116.
Etymology, - - - - - - - 19.

False syntax, - - - - - - - 197.
Familiar lessons for beginners, 5.
Figures of rhetoric, - - - - - 213.
Figures of etymology, - - - 211.
Figures of syntax, - - - - - 212.
Formation of tenses, - - - - 110.
Formation of sentences. - - - 55.

Gender, - - - - - - - - - 67.
General rules of syntax, - - - 150.
General divisions, - - - - - 13.
General exercises in syntax, - 193.
Greek prefixes, - - - - - - 223.

Iambic verse, - - - - - - - 208.
Idiomatic expressions, - - - 194.
Imperative mode, 97, 98, 102, 108, 117.
Independent case, - - - - - 167.
Indicative mode, - - 93, 101, 105.
Infinitive mode, - - - 93, 105, 112.
Interjection, - - - - - 57, 191.
Interrogative form, - - - - - 114
Intransitive verbs, - - - - - 79
Irony, - - - - - - - - - 214
Irregular verbs, - - - - - - 101
Irregular comparison, - - - - 124

Labials and dentals, - - - - - 5.
Latin prefixes, - - - - - - 222.
Letters, - - - - - - - - - - 5.
Letter writing, - - - - - - 139.

Method of analyzing, - - - 53.
Models of analyzing, - - - - 63.
Modes, - - - - - - - - 80, 182.
Modified subject, - - - - 39.
Modified predicate, - - - - 52.
Modify, - - - - - - - - - - 36.
Modification of words, - - 141.

Negative form, - - - - 115.
Nominative case, - - - 71, 153.
Nouns, - - - - - - - - - 22.
Nouns or pronouns modified, - - 36.
Number, - - - - - - - - - 64.
Numerals, - - - - - - - 121.

Object, - - - - - - - 27.
Objective case, - - - - 74, 164.
Observations on the verbs, - - 116.
Orthography, - - - - - - 13.

Participles, - - 89, 111, 113, 118, 180.
Parts of speech, - - - - - 21, 58.
Passive form of transitive verbs, 113.
Person, - - - - - - - - - 63.
Personal pronouns, - - - - 76.
Poetic license, - - - - - - 211.
Potential mode, - - 95, 102, 107.
Possessive case, - - - - 72, 161.
Predicate, - - - - - - - - 30.
Prefixes and suffixes, - - - - 222.
Prepositions, - - - - 49, 132, 188.
Principal parts of verbs, - - - .
Pronominal adjectives, - - 121, 174.
Pronouns, - - - - - 76, 125, 169.
Proper nouns, - - - - - - 33.
Properties of nouns, - - - 63.
Prosody, - - - - - - - - 207.
Punctuation, - - - - - - - 146.

Regular verbs, - - - - - - 90.
Regular Comparison, - - - - 123.
Relative pronouns, - - - - - 125.
Rules of syntax, - - - - - 150.

Saxon prefixes, - - - - - 222.
Sentence, - - - - - - - - 28.
Signs of the modes, - - - - 82.
Signs of the tenses, - - - - - 86.
Simple sentences, - - - - 140, 143.
Sounds of the vowels, - - - - 15.
Sounds of the consonants, - - 16.
Spelling, rules for, - - - - - 223.
Subject modified by adjuncts, 44, 29.
Subject modified by nouns or pronouns, - - - - - - - 43.
Subjunctive mode, - - 97, 102, 108.
Substitutes, - - - - - - - 17.
Suffixes, - - - - - - - - - 222.
Synonymes, - - - 157, 160, 165, 174.
Synopsis, - - - - - - - - - 103.
Synopsis of grammatical relations, 140.
Syntax, - - - - - - - - - - 142.

Tables of nouns, - - - - - - 215.
Tables of irregular verbs, - - 216
Tenses, - - - - - - - 83, 117, 184.
Terms employed in analyzing, 59
That, - - - - - - - - - - 34.
Transitive verbs, - - - - - 79.
Trochaic verse, - - - - - - 209.
Two objectives, - - - - - 166.

Verbs, - - - - - - - - 25, 79, 178
Verbs modified, - - - - - - 45.
Versification, - - - - - - 207.
Vowels, - - - - - - - - - 14.
Vowel substitutes, - - - - 17.

What, - - - - - - - - - - 128.
Who, which, that, - - - - 34, 126
Words, - - - - - - - - 5, 19

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